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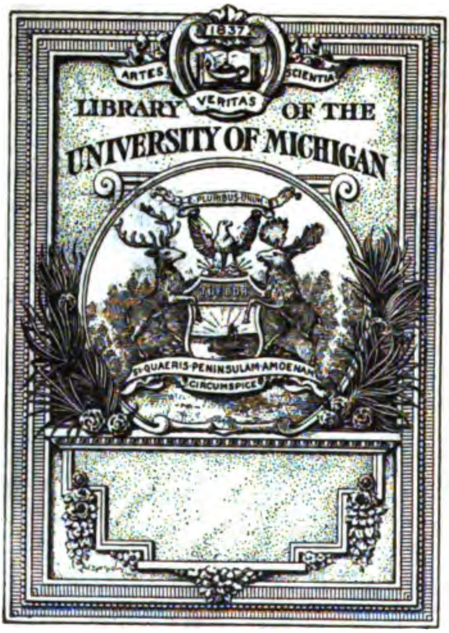
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AND
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Containing
Sketches and *Reports*
OF
Philosophy, RELIGION, History,
Arts and Manners.

Omnes undique flosculos carpam atque delib

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INDEX

TO THE THIRD VOLUME.

MISCELLANY.

PAGE
ADAMS's, Hon. J. Q. inaugural oration 288
——— speech concerning foreign ministers 266
Adams's, T. B. disquisition on the philosophy of the ancients 505
Aikin, Dr. on the style of 174
Ancient library of Alexandria 5, 58
Art of reading 527
Arts, progress of the 235
Aram, Eugene, trial of 468
American travellers, essay on 628

Bayle, Saurin's account of 16
Beauty and virtue 526
Bentley, Dr. Richard, life of 238, 295, 339, 409, 454, 521, 561, 623
Beattie's, Dr. genius & writings 570, 619
Ben Jonson and Cowper 303
Bishop of Aleria, account of 177
Blair's, Dr. writings 236
Blue-Stocking club, account of 579
Burns and Bloomfield, parallel of 127

Cowper, writings of 631
Correspondence 53
Cowper and Burns 67
Cowper and Thompson 17
Classick club, account of 578
Cumberland 466
Chymistry, modern 467

Definition of man 417
Decision of character 582
Devotional poetry 175
Dedications 24
Domestick pleasures 526
Denham, Sir John, poetry of 631

Eclipse of the sun, 1806, account of 327
Education, academick 18
Enigmatical epitaph 402

Falls of Niagara, accounts of 13, 458
False wit 528
Fawcett, Joseph, account of 525
Female education 129
Friendship of women 80
First Basium of Secundus, extract from 359
Franklin, Dr. on the literary character of 661
French prejudice 577
Family physician, No. 5 9
No. 6 171

Grecian Daughter 417
Goldsmith and Johnson, anecdotes 348
Goldsmith's writings 63
Gray's works 62

Howard, Rev. Dr. character of 115
Hudibras, imitation of 129
Human nature 358

Inscription on the monument of Sir William Phipps 246
Jortin, Dr. character of 191

Liberal arts, essays on 300, 414
Literature of North Carolina 355
Love and chivalry 65
Lavater, Dr. Hunter's account of 369
Lucretius, criticism on 358
Literary and philosophical intelligence 55, 109, 164, 221, 377, 390, 447, 502, 558, 613,
Literature in Italy, present state of 177, 228

Method, essay on 120
Marmontel, memoirs of 131
Mansfield and Chatham 418
Medici, family of 80
Misfortunes of an ill-directed passion for literature 76
Monitory poems and proverbs of Solomon 303
Modern scholars 175
Miscellaneous essay 529
Monthly catalogue of new publications in U. S. 54, 106, 161, 217, 264, 331, 387, 444, 499, 554, 610, 669

200811

Nature in winter 63

Original letters from Europe, 1, 61, 113, 169, 225, 281, 337
Original letter from England 403
Ossian and Homer 417
Our country, characteristicks of 579

Publick lotteries 630
Parnell and Voltaire 17, 416
Petronius Arbiter, eccentricity of 236
Pope and Gray 304
Port Folio 176
Pope, anecdotes of 15, 468, 527
Plane tree 63
Protestant churches in Boston, digest of the rights of 632

Remarker, No. V, 19—VI, 69—VII, 124—VIII, 185—IX, 243—X, 285 XI, 343—XII, 399—XIII, 473—XIV, 518—XV, 567—XVI, 617
Racine's Britannicus, La Harpe's criticism on 345, 395, 461, 513
Rousseau, character of 190
Ruins of Thebes or Luxore 580

Salt and sulphur springs, account of 393
Silva, No. 11, 15—12, 62—13, 127—14, 175—15, 235—16, 302—17, 357—18, 416—19, 466—20, 525—21, 576—22, 627
Swift, style of 64
Southey, extract from 357
Swans 527
Schools of painting, and masters 449
Shakespeare's mulberry tree 65
Sans Souci 24, 79, 360
Statement of diseases 56, 112, 168, 224, 266, 392, 448, 504, 560, 616, 672

Tacitus, thoughts on 172, 405
Translators, on 302
Taste, on 417

Vaniere's prædam rusticum 418
Voltaire, writings of 627, 418

Westminster school, account of 636
Whether the world will ever relapse into barbarism 4
Winter evening 580
Warburton and Drayton 64

POETRY.

Ad Julium, academiam pro Mercatura linquentum 532
African, the, by Bowles 306

Baucis and Philemon, by Swift 363

Cantata, by Prior 248
Cave, the 249

Death and Daphne 193
Deus 305

Erin 643
Experience, or folly as it flies 477
Epistle to Theophilus Parsons 305
——— to a young friend 137
——— by Cowper 307
——— to Dolly 534
Epitaph, by Prior 250
Epigram, by J. M. Sewall 136
Eulogy on laughing 250

Fowler, the 591
Funeral Hymn 249
Field Flower, lines on the 536

Grave, the 647

Helvellyn 644
Hymn, by Burns 307
Herb Rosemary, to the 422

Jackdaw, the, by Cowper 365

Know yourself, by Dr. Johnson 195

Listening to a cricket, lines on 533
Lines, written after a storm at sea 535
—— to W. C. jun. 587
—— on a melancholy event 419
—— on the death of a young lady 248
Lyre, lines on the 646

Monody to the memory of General Knox 642
Madoc, extracts from 26, 81, 136

New-Year's Address 645

Ocean, 589

Pairing time anticipated 82
Prosopopœia Umbræ 135
Pastoral 532
Procellarius Pelagicus, to the 420

Parallels 195, 365, 420
Poverty, lines to 588

Solomon's song, version of the 8th chapter of 194
Smith's poem to the memory of Philips 361
Spring, verses on 193
Sunset, verses written at 196
Song 196
Snow-drop, lines on the 536
Story of an apparition 81
Shipwreck, the 136

Χειρων δεινοτατος Κενταυρος 246

Winter 426

* * *

REVIEW.

Adams's understanding reader 498
Akenside's pleasures of imagination 375
American Annals, by Rev. Abiel Holmes, vol. 1 257, 371

Bentley's sermon at the ordination of Rev. J. Richardson 656
Biographical memoirs of lord Nelson 652
Bowen's discourse on the death of General Gadsden 104
Bowditch's chart of Salem harbour 490

Caine's New-York term reports 367
Carr's northern summer 262
Cary's address to the Merrimack Humane Society 551
Charnock's memoirs of Nelson 652
Cheselden's anatomy of the human body 376
Christian Monitor, No. I. 215, 495
———— **No. II.** 496
———— **No. III,** 657
Chart of Salem and Marblehead harbour 490
Chandler's life of president Johnson 92
Collections of Massachusetts Historical Society, vol. VI. 315
Cock's inaugural dissertation 156
Complete justice of the peace 653
Cullen's first lines of the practice of physick 158

Davies' sketch of the geography of North-Carolina 264
Dearborn's oration 444
Democracy unvieled 376
Dow's familiar letters 256
Drayton's view of South-Carolina 205
Dunlap's dramatick works, vol. I. 550

Edgeworth's Leonora 436
Ellicot's journal 538
Elements of general knowledge 160
Eliot's sermon at the ordination of Rev. H. Edes 100
Emerson's discourse before the female asylum 101
Enchanted lake of the fairy Morgana 428

Facts and observations relative to the pestilential fever 260
Fessenden's original poems 369
First settlers of Virginia 98
Fleetwood, or new man of feeling 159
Foscari, or the Venetian exile 603

Grammar of the French tongue 497

Hardie's account of the fever in New-York 210
Hopkins's life 152
Holmes's American annals, vol. I. 257, 371
Home, a poem 552

Inquiry into the law merchant of the United States 308
Inquiry into the present state of the Union 655
Journal of Andrew Elliçot 538

Kett's elements of general knowledge 160
Kendall's artillery election sermon 377

Lay of the last minstrel 546
Lathrop's discourse at Springfield on opening the bridge 101
———— **illustrations and reflections on Saul's consulting the witch of Endor** 313
Leonora, by miss Edgeworth 436
Letters from Europe, during a tour through Switzerland and Italy 86

Life and campaigns of Gen. Moreau 314
Life of Rev. Dr. Hopkins 152
Life of president Johnson 92
Lyman's sermon before the convention of ministers 496

Map of the United States 345
Memoirs of Richard Cumberland 597
Memoirs of American academy of arts and sciences, vol. I. 28, 83, 197
Michaux's travels to the west of the Alleghany mountains 378
Modern Philosopher, or terrible tractoration 497

New-York term reports, by Caines 367
Northern summer, by Carr 262

Original poems, by T.G. Fessenden 369

Phocion on neutral rights 494
Philadelphia medical museum, vols. I. and II. 599
Pleasures of imagination 375
Porter's sermon at the ordination of Rev. C. Lowell 103

Rees' new cyclopædia, part I. 423, 485
Report of the trial of judge Chase 31

Savage's poetical works 215
Satire of Juvenal, new translation 592
Sabbath, a poem 323
Scott's lay of the last minstrel 546
Shade of Plato 262
Shepard's election sermon 377
Sherman on the trinity 249
Snowden's history of North and South Carolina 157
Strangford's translation of the poems of Camoens 216
Sullivan's lectures on the constitution and laws of England 438
Sullivan's map of the United States 325
Supplement to Johnson's dictionary 105
Swett's military address 442

Translation of Camoens' poems 216
Travels in Louisiana, translated by John Davis 649
Trial of the journeymen boot and shoe makers of Philadelphia 609

Understanding reader 498
Underwood on the diseases of children 370
Unguiology, brief sketch of 496

War in disguise, or frauds of neutral flags 47
Webster's 4th July oration 441
Williams's reports of cases in the supreme court of Massachusetts 138
Wortman's political inquiry 544
Wreath for the Rev. Daniel Dow 661

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

JANUARY, 1806.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

The original letters, which we have frequently had the pleasure of communicating to the publick, have been in general written in different situations, and on desultory subjects. The following is the beginning of a regular series of letters by a gentleman, who has all the qualities which taste, talents, fortune, and liberality can give, to make him a pleasant traveller.

LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No.* 1.

Departure from America...storms in the ocean...lunar rainbow...streights of Gibraltar...island of Sicily...Ustica...Lipari islands...coast of St. Eufernia ...arrival at Naples...quarantine.

Port of Naples, Feb. 1802.

You will, my dear friend, participate the satisfaction I feel in dating my letter from this place. The dangers and hardships to which ships are exposed in a winter passage across the ocean have been this season uncommonly numerous. From the period of our departure till our arrival here, we have been devoted to the fury of successive tempests, with only short intervals of good weather. We were told upon our arrival that we were not alone in misfortune, that the winter had been very tempestuous, and that the shores of Europe were covered with wrecks.

When in the latitude of the Western Islands, a most violent storm assailed us, which continued during two days with unabated violence. It cleared away in the evening, and I was witness to an appearance I had never before seen. The full moon was considerably elevated above the horizon, and her rays occasioned in the heavy cloud that was subsiding a rainbow, which continued in the most perfect state for half an hour. The arc was entire, but the colours fainter than those produced by the sun. The agitation of the waves gradually dying away, the splendour of the moon, the dense clouds on which this bow appeared with majestick elegance, altogether formed a scene, the sublimity of which afforded me consolation for the storm which was past.

The thirtieth day of our passage we saw the streights of Gibraltar, the pillars of Hercules, and the formidable rock, which, since its famous siege, must be deemed impregnable. A favourable wind gave the vessel a rapid passage through the streights. On one side of us were the shores of Europe, on the other those of Africa. Civilization and barbarity are here within sight of each other: Even the appearance of the shores was expressive of the different characters of the two regions; the Spanish coast presented to view green fields, white buildings, and smiling cultivation;

that of Barbary looked dark and gloomy.

After getting thro' the streights we saw two Swedish frigates with a convoy of forty or fifty sail of their countrymen. The wind was against them, and from what we afterwards experienced must have continued adverse to them for several days, during which they could not advance. The current, through the streights, runs constantly two or three miles an hour; merchant vessels and heavy ships of war never attempt to pass *out* of the streights with a contrary wind, though sometimes they have been known to experience a delay of two months.

The evening of the day we passed the streights the sky was covered with flying clouds, the night was obscure, and we were sailing with a gentle breeze, while the sea was remarkably brilliant; every little wave that broke looked like a bank of snow reflecting the rays of the sun, while the passage of the vessel through the sea made the water all around her so luminous, that I could see to read as clearly as by day. This sparkling appearance of the waves is said to denote an approaching storm, though afterwards we experienced five or six days of the only fine weather we had during the voyage. During the night the vessel had gone fifty miles, and in the morning, when I came upon deck, the coasts of Spain were four or five leagues distant, and those of Africa still more. The mountains of Grenada seemed to be on the edge of the coast, and the shining appearance of their distant summits recalled to mind the splendid aërial palaces of romance.

After three days we passed by Cape Tarolaro on the island of Sardinia, and twenty-four hours afterwards saw the island of Sicily and the singular fantastick forms of its capes and promontories. We tried in vain to get into Palermo; the wind was fair to go to Naples, and the captain bore away. Soon after we passed the island of Ustica, which is in the route from Palermo to Naples, a vessel appeared behind us of suspicious aspect. Like frightened children in the dark, to whom every object is a sprite, every vessel we saw was a Tripolitan pirate, and the sight of breakers was less terrifick than that of a sail. The ship in question sailed better than ourselves, and was gaining fast upon us. Every one of the crew was anticipating the horrours of slavery, when a violent squall came upon us so suddenly, that for several minutes every one expected to see the masts carried away, even after the vessel was put before the wind. After an hour, during which we had changed our course and were going with great rapidity, the squall cleared away, and we saw no more of the vessel which had alarmed us. This propitious squall, though it threatened us with destruction, was welcomed with great cordiality. How barbarous is the state of human nature! The sight of a vessel, on the dreary expanse of the sea, ought to be an object of the most pleasing sensations, and in moments of danger, alleviating the solitude of horrour, should inspire us with hope by knowing that others are participating the same danger; yet such a sight is deprecated more than the wildest fury of the elements, and we greet the howling tempest that separates us from each other.

The next day we were in the mouth of the bay of Naples, but the weather was cloudy and the land could only be seen partially. The captain thought himself to the northward of the island of Ischia, though he was to the southward of Capra; and instead of running as he thought into the bay of Naples, he was running down the gulf of Salerno. A storm came on towards night of the most furious kind, such as the sailors call *white squalls*. The flashes of lightning were extremely vivid, and the utmost exertions were used to clear the land. The next day the Lipari islands were in sight, and the vessel was tossed about on mountainous waves. I have observed, that *the seas are much shorter*, according to the sailors' expression, in the Mediterranean than in the ocean; and the only advantage of a storm in the former is, that the swell subsides sooner after the storm is past. But it is a treacherous sea to navigate, and fraught with more perils to navigation than the ocean. Violent squalls often arise very suddenly, and I was convinced that the mode of rigging vessels in the fashion of poleacres is well calculated for this sea. They are enabled to drop their sails all at once, when a vessel with a mast in three pieces might be dismasted before she could take in sail.

At night, when the vessel was not more than four leagues from Stromboli, I observed it burning. It threw out flames to the height apparently of twenty feet; this would last a few minutes, and thus it continued the whole night at intervals. During the day it appeared smoking, but owing to the distance and the light I could see no flames. Whilst beating off this island, and trying to regain the bay of Naples, another storm drove us upon the coast of Calabria. I do not know any Juno that I have offended, but Æolus did not torment the Trojan hero more than myself, and very often I thought of Virgil's ancient description of the storm.

Una Eurusque Notusqu ruunt creberque procellis,

The vessel was at one time waterlogged, the sails were torn to pieces, the foremast sprung, and with only a close-reefed fore top sail, we tried to keep off the shore; no one had any hope that we should be able to do this long, and every preparation was made to be ready to save ourselves when the vessel struck, which thro' the whole night was constantly expected. When day light came the shore was still a league distant. The gale had moderated, and the swell began to lessen; we were now near the bay of St.Eufernia. After five or six days beating about, we again found ourselves opposite the bay of Naples, in the same place where we had been more than a fortnight before. The weather was pleasant, but the wind determined to vex us to the last moment; and though we were only two hours sail from the port, we did not arrive till the next day. My pleasure on arriving was much increased by contemplating the beauties of this bay, of which description has so often attempted in vain to give an idea.

The second day of this month the vessel was anchored within the mole. Though we had made a winter passage of sixty days, from a country perfectly healthy, the ingenuity of the health-office thought proper to impose a quarantine of twenty days upon the vessel. Being now in a place of safety, after having escaped so many dangers, I consider this as the last vexation of the voyage, and endeavour to support it patiently, as it will soon terminate; though I have so long *enjoyed* the society of the captain and mate that I begin to grow tired of it. The latter asked me the other day, with a silly hesitating grin, *to guess* how much money he had spent since our arrival. I confessed my inability to fix any sum. "Why we have been here only ten days, and I have spent almost a dollar."

The first day after our arrival we were besieged with beggars of every sort. They come off in boats and surround the vessel. One moment a capuchin would extend his cowl, and in a submissive attitude ask our charity ; hardly rid of him, before a band of musick would be under the stern, till something was obtained ; the serenade finished, a woman with three or four miserable children would be screaming for something. These scenes are so new to an American, that we always gave them ; and in consequence were so surrounded with supplicants, that we were obliged at last to refuse our charity altogether.

WHETHER THE WORLD WILL EVER RELAPSE INTO BARBARISM.

[From Dr. Arthur Browne's Miscellaneous Sketches.]

MY own opinion always has been, that the present state of illumination and refinement will be succeeded by second darkness and Cimmerian night, equally gloomy with the cloud raised by the crush of the Roman empire. The reply of those to whom the idea was suggested uniformly has been, *impossible ;* the art of printing renders such fears groundless. I answer : the art of printing itself may become exclusively the engine of wickedness, of vice, of folly, of irreligion. If the fashion or madness of the times should produce a relish for corrupted food, we may be filled with writings to satiety, yet swallow nothing but poison ; what infinite mischief has the press produced in our own days ! In France, the vehicle of every crime, it has been the easy propagator of blasphemy, of massacre, of anarchy. Whether it shall finally be a blessing or a curse, must depend on the taste of mankind ; and if that taste be vitiated, and feeds upon venom, the more it consumes the sooner will we perish. The press without morals will not preserve civilization ; and immorality will make it the vehicle of barbarism.

What do the common people now read ?...newspapers ; and what do newspapers contain ?...false news, false principles, false morals, endeavoured to be impressed on the publick by contending parties, without the least regard to truth, to virtue, or publick utility ; and who are the compilers of these vehicles of instruction (the only lessons learnt by the vulgar) ? often the lowest, and vilest, and most ignorant of mankind. *Socrates*, *Plato*, and *Aristotle* taught the Athenian people. The people of London are taught by the compilers of newspapers, the engines of the mob or of the court.

That the common people ought not to be taught to read, as is said by some, is justly thought a monstrous position, yet it might be rendered true, if all they read tend to mislead and to darken them.

Does the press improve their civilization ? that press which pours forth every day, for the improvement of our young men, the scenes of a brothel, illustrated with drawings ; and for its maidens, the delusions of a novel, or the evidence of a trial for adultery ? Query, whether the publications of morality and religion, numerous as they are, countervail the advantage which Satan derives from the art of printing ?

Suppose a nation should take it in their heads to condemn all old systems and all old books, because they contain old systems; suppose they should include the Bible in the number; suppose they should prevent the reprinting of all present learning, and insist that nothing should be published except their own new-fangled doctrines, and that these doctrines tended to unhinge all civilized society. Reader, are my suspicions wild? know then, if you know it not already, they were realized in our own day; they were realized in France within these five years*; they were realized by the tyrant Robespierre; by Robespierre worse than Omar, for Omar acted not from enmity to learning, but from friendship to Mahometanism.

It has employed the whole vigour of the French nation to return from their phrenzy to common sense; but nations will not always recover from their phrensies, and in progress of time my fears may be realized. France in its wild deliriums has astonished the world; they may be outdone by some more outrageous fever, which may finally end in the extinction of light and life. Human nature, insolent and presuming in its own strength, spurning the aids of divine revelation, and even of ancient learning, may relapse after convulsions into lethargy, and till the impossibility of such events be proved by some better argument than the invention of printing, I shall ever, from data afforded by the history of modern times, believe their probability. The age of pretended self sufficient reason will become the age of absurdity; irreligion will subvert all government, and anarchy lead to barbarism.

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* These sketches were published in 1798.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

GENTLEMEN,

THE immense archives of ancient learning in the famous library of Alexandria, since the publication of the Latin version of the Dynasties of Abulpharagius, have generally been supposed to have been destroyed by the inconsiderate, infuriate zeal of the Mahometan Arabs, on their invasion of Alexandria under the command of Omar, and "every scholar, with pious indignation, has deplored the irreparable shipwreck of the learning, the arts, and the genius of antiquity." If Hamlet, in the ravings of his imagination, did so force his thoughts to his own conceit, as to reason himself into a belief, that he could trace the noble dust of Alexander, till he found it stopping a bunghole; the world, with insufferable credulity, and without troubling themselves to reason at all, have traced the parchments of the Alexandrian library till they found them distributed by the command of an ignorant fanatick to the four thousand baths of the city, and, such being their incredible number, that six months were scarcely sufficient for the consumption of this precious fuel. Many writers in different parts of Europe have lately denied the authenticity of the fact, which is indeed marvellous. In 1794 M. K. Reinhard published a dissertation in the German language, in which he attempts to prove, that the library was demolished long before the year 640, the time when Alexandria was taken by the Saracens. In the Spectateur du Nord, for September 1798, I find an article on this celebrated library, written by some one who signs himself V*****, whom I presume to be Volney, the celebrated traveller into Egypt, and who confessedly avails himself of the materials of M. K. Reinhard. Thinking that it might afford some amusement to the readers of the Anthology, I have made a translation from the French and now send it to you for publication.

Whatever was the ulteriour destination of the Alexandrian library, we may ask, Have the learned world much reason to regret its destruction? Gibbon, in his history of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, [Amer. edit. vol. 6, page 368] seems to answer the question in the negative. "I sincerely regret, says he, the more valuable libraries which have been involved in the ruin of the Roman empire; but when I seriously compute the lapse of ages, the waste of ignorance, and the calamities of war, our treasures, rather than our losses, are the object of my surprise. Many curious and interesting facts are buried in oblivion; the three great historians of Rome have been transmitted to our hands in a mutilated state, and we are deprived of many pleasing compositions of the lyrick, iambick, and dramatick poetry of the Greeks. Yet we should gratefully remember, that the mischances of time and accident have spared the classick works to which the suffrage of antiquity had adjudged the first place of genius and glory: the teachers of ancient knowledge, who are still extant, had perused and compared the writings of their predecessors; nor can it fairly be presumed that any important truth, any useful discovery in art or nature, has been snatched away from the curiosity of modern ages."

Without entirely rejecting the opinion of Gibbon on this subject, we cannot however but believe, that our literary treasures would have been greater, if we still could have recourse to the library of the Serapion. By whatever means it was destroyed, by the worms or by the flames, by neglect or fanaticism, it is very certain that it would have furnished us with the works of Aristotle complete and correct; of Menander; all that is wanting of Æschylus; of Euripides; the poems of Empidocles, and of Stersichorus; a variety of philosophical writings of Theophrastus, Epicurus, and many others; and a multitude of historick facts, of which we are now forever deprived. These losses ought certainly to occasion some regret to the friends of the sciences and the muses.

But I am willing to acknowledge, in deploring the loss of the great library in the temple of Serapis, we may view with indifference the parchments burnt by Amrou, if indeed he burnt any. It will be clearly demonstrated in the following dissertation, that, in his time, the collection of the Ptolemies could no longer have existed; and all the historians affirm, that, for the two or three centuries preceding the arrival of the Musselmen, there had appeared an enormous quantity of polemical writing, produced by the Gnostics, the Arians, the Monosophists, the Monotelites, &c. &c. differents sects, which much agitated the empire, and particularly

Alexandria. It is very probable, that the houses of the patriarchs and the churches were very full of these writings; and if they afforded fuel to heat the baths, we are of opinion, with Mr. Gibbon, that they were ultimately devoted for the benefit of mankind.

SAMPSICERAMUS.

1. A SHORT HISTORY OF THE LIBRARY OF ALEXANDRIA, BEFORE THE INVASION OF THE SARACENS.

ALEXANDRIA, almost at the commencement of its foundation by the conqueror of India, became affluent and powerful, and its progress was still more rapid under his royal successors. It was divided into many quarters, which were like so many towns. One of these quarters, the Bruchion, situated on the banks of the sea near the grand harbour, included all the edifices attached to the basilicum, or palace of the king, the great college, and many others. The first of the Ptolemies, Lagus, did not confine his efforts to render Alexandria one of the most beautiful and commercial cities, he wished that it might also become the focus of the sciences and philosophy. In conjunction with Demetrius of Phalaris, an Athenian emigrant, this prince established there a society of wise men, similar to the modern French academies and institutes. He built for their accommodation that celebrated museum, which was an additional ornament to the Bruchion; there was placed that ponderous library, which Titus Livy styles, *elegantiæ regum curæque egregium opus*.

Philadelphus, successor of Lagus, seeing that the library of the Bruchion contained four hundred thousand volumes, either that the place could not contain a greater number, or that he was ambitious for a similar monument to eternise his own name, founded a second library in the temple of Serapis, called the Serapion, situated at some distance from the Bruchion, in another quarter of the city. These two libraries were for a long time called the *mother* and *daughter*. Cæsar, during his war in Egypt, burnt the royal fleet in the great bay of Alexandria, and the fire communicated to the Bruchion; the mother library was consumed, and if any of the manuscripts were rescued from the flames, they were probably deposited in that of the Serapion, which in future can be the only subject in dispute. Evergetes, and the other Ptolemies, successively augmented the library. Cleopatra there deposited two hundred thousand manuscripts of the Pergamean library, with which she was presented by Mark Antony.

Let us now follow the traces of the existence of the library. Aulus Gellius and Ammianus Marcellinus seem to intimate, that the contents of the Alexandrian library were burnt by the fire in the time of Cæsar. The first declares in his Noctes Atticæ, "that the number of the books, collected in Ægypt by the Ptolemies, was immense, amounting even to seven hundred thousand volumes, but they were all burnt in the war which Julius Cæsar waged with the inhabitants of Alexandria, not with premeditated design, but by the soldiers who were perhaps auxiliaries." [Lib. 8. Cap. 17.]

Ammianus Marcellinus, in the 22d book and 16th chapter of his history, says, "The Serapion contained an inestimable library of seven hundred thousand volumes, collected by the industry of the Ptolemies and burnt during the war of Alexandria, when that city was destroyed by the dictator Cæsar."

But both of the historians have erred on the same point. Ammianus, in the course of his recital, evidently confounds the Serapion and the Bruchion. It is clearly proved, that Cæsar destroyed some buildings of the latter only, and not the whole city.

Suetonius, in his life of Domitian, relates that this emperour sent copyists to Alexandria to transcribe a great number of books, which he wanted for his library. The library must then have existed a long time after Cæsar. Besides, we know that the Serapion was not destroyed until the year of our Lord 391 by the orders of Theodosius.

Without doubt the library suffered considerably on the last occasion. But after this it still existed, at least in part; which we cannot doubt on the testimony of Orosius, who, twenty-four years afterwards, travelled into Alexandria, and who declares, that he saw there, *in many temples, cases filled with books, the reliques of the ancient libraries.* It is worthy of remark, that this author, as well as Seneca in his treatise De Tranquillitate Animi, relate, that the number of volumes burnt by Cæsar amounted to four hundred thousand; and as it appears that the total number of the books was but seven hundred thousand, there remains, with what they were able to save from the library in the Bruchion, at most but three or four hundred thousand to compose the one in the Serapion.

The veracious Orosius, in 415, is the last witness we have, who testifies to the existence of the library at Alexandria. The numerous christian writers of the fifth and sixth centuries, who have transmitted to us many useless facts, do not say one word on this important subject. We have then no more certain documents, respecting the fate of the library, from 415 until 636, or, according to some, not until 648, when Alexandria was taken by the Arabs....a period of ignorance, of barbarism, of wars, of convulsions, and of fruitless disputes between a hundred different sects.

2. OF THE LIBRARY BURNT BY THE SARACENS.

About the year of our Saviour 640 the troops of the caliph Omar, under the command of Amrou, took Alexandria. For more than ten centuries no person in Europe interested himself to know what became of this celebrated library. At last, about the year 1660, a learned Oxonian, Edward Pococke, who had collected in two journies to the East many Arabian manuscripts, made known for the first time to the learned world, in a latin translation, the oriental history of the physician Abulpharagius, from whom we make the following extract..."At that time lived among the Musselmen *John* of Alexandria, who was called *the grammarian*, and who espoused the cause of the jacobite christians. He lived even at the time when Amrou-Ebno'l-As took Alexandria. He attached himself to the conqueror; and

Amrou, who knew the progress which John had made in the sciences, treated him with great respect, listening with much eagerness to his philosophick discourses, which were altogether new to the Arabians. Amrou was himself a man of much judgment and penetration. He retained this learned man constantly near him. John said to him one day : Thou hast visited all the magazines of Alexandria, and hast set thy seal upon every thing which thou hast found there. Of all that can serve thee I request nothing ; but thou canst reasonably leave us, what will be useless to thee. What is it thou wishest? interrupted Amrou. The philosophical books, replied John, which are found in the royal palace. I can dispose of nothing, said Amrou, without permission from the chief of the faithful, Omar-Ebno'l-Chattab. He then wrote to Omar what John had requested of him, to which Omar replied,... As to the books thou mentionest, if they accord with the book of God, there is without them in that book all that is sufficient ; but if there be any thing repugnant to that book, we have no need of them : order them therefore to be all destroyed. Amrou upon this gave orders, that they should be dispersed through the baths of Alexandria, and burned in heating them. After this manner, in the space of six months, they were all consumed. Hear what was done and wonder."—When this recital was made known in Europe, its authenticity was admitted without contradiction. It there acquired full credit, and in the opinion of the vulgar it passed for certainty.

After Pococke we had the knowledge of another Arabian historian, who was also a physician, and who gives nearly the same recital. His name is Abdollatif, who wrote about the year 1200, and of consequence a little before Abulpharagius. We are indebted for the publication to professor Paulus, who made it after a manuscript in the Bodleian library. We here insert the passage in question. "I have seen also the Portico which, after Aristotle and his disciples, became the academick college, and also the college which Alexander the Great built at the same time with the city, in which was contained the superb library which Amrou bin-El-As rendered a prey to the flames by the orders of the great Omar, to whom God be merciful."

As this little narrative quadrates with the character for ferocity and barbarism, which the christian historians, particularly those in the times of the crusades, attributed to the Saracens, no person for a long time thought proper to call it in question. On this point we shall undertake to justify the caliph Omar, and his lieutenant Amrou ; not from love of the Saracens, but from love of truth.

[To be continued.]

For the Monthly Anthology.

THE FAMILY PHYSICIAN. *No. 5.*

I AM a sincere believer in the usefulness of doctors and physick. I believe that diseases may be mitigated, and diseases may be averted in many instances by proper management ; and that the proper management will more probably be discovered by men who devote their whole attention to this business, than by the sick and their neighbours.

I am however aware, that very sensible men are hereticks on this subject. They say, the doctors theorize, instead of observing nature modestly and carefully; and that their physick often irritates and sometimes destroys the patients, who would otherwise throw off their diseases more easily and more certainly. Now there is some truth in this charge, and I will join them in the opinion, that *my brethren* are too prone to theorize. This is not peculiar to them; it belongs to mankind generally, and arises from indolence and an impatience to appear wise. All knowledge must be acquired slowly and with difficulty. The labour becomes too tedious, and men are ready to guess at the truth, rather than wait its slow and painful developement. This happens every day in common affairs; and as the injury, which results from it, is not very great, it is disregarded. The error deservedly arrests attention, when the subjects are great principles, either in physicks or morals. It is remarkable, that men form an attachment to the vagaries of their own minds, which is oftentimes stronger, and excites more zeal, than a simple conviction of real truth. This circumstance aggravates very much the evils arising from a false theory. In our profession, men grow as warm in the support of their peculiar tenets, I had almost said as the theologians; and as the sectarian in religion hopes, that all will be damned, who do not worship with him, so the father of a medical hypothesis is willing to rejoice if all die, who are treated according to principles differing from his own. They both persuade themselves, that charity and a love of truth govern their hearts.

These things must be so, while human nature remains what it is. Toil and trouble will ever be shunned. Society indeed renders them more tolerable by the compensation it gives for them; and as this advances in real improvement, the compensation will increase, and of course the labour will more readily be procured. To correct our errors, we must trace them to their source. This consideration has induced me, to present the preceding and the following observations on the causes, which lead the faculty into the habit of theorizing.

I have lightened the censure, which is thrown upon us by spreading a part of it on the broad shoulders of *poor human nature;* I mean to charge the remainder to a fault of our patients and their friends.

The importance and essential duty of a physician, is to advise the sick what to do;—to direct their whole conduct. As the sick should never call a physician, unless they have more confidence in his knowledge and judgment than in their own; so when they have received his advice, they should follow it implicitly. If indeed it is so opposite to their own settled opinions, as to destroy that confidence, then the motive for following his advice must cease to operate. But the patient and his friends are seldom satisfied with the advice alone; they want to know the name of the disease, the nature of the case, and the reasons for the mode of treatment. In short, they want to be taught in half an hour, and that too while they are under the influence of strong feelings, what it may have cost the physician months to learn, and might employ him hours to detail; at a moment perhaps, when the circumstances do not permit him, to make up his own opinion decidedly;—and he is too apt to think his reputation requires, that he should attempt to gratify them. They ask only for simple reasons and simple explanations, not wishing to look into the arcana of our art. Now simple reasons and simple explanations are precisely what it is most difficult to give them, and most difficult for them to comprehend. Accordingly, to save his credit, the doctor dresses up for them an explanation in unmeaning words, from which they fancy they understand a kind of something; and from the habit of talking nonsense to others, and finding them satisfied with it, he gets to value it himself. Here is the stumbling block on which he falls.

I know very well how much these remarks may expose the faculty to the wits, who, when their own bones do not ache, are not apt to spare us. But it is certainly true, that a man may be learned, and well versed in the practice of physick, and yet may not be ready to answer, to the ignorant, the inquiries above stated. For my own part, I should think well of any young man, who plainly refused to do it.

There are several reasons for all this. One great one is, that while all the world talk of the importance and advantages of experience, few people understand the nature and extent of experimental knowledge. We are all acquainted with the phenomena, which depend on the principle of gravitation. But if these phenomena were not so constantly obvious, as to render them familiar; if they were known only to the learned, and one, discoursing on the subject, were to state that it is found by experiment whenever any body, specifically heavier than the atmosphere, is thrown into the air it falls to the ground; and that the acquaintance with this principle might enable us to construct many useful machines;—of one, so discoursing, many, not only of the vulgar, but of the better informed, would inquire why this thing was so; and they would hardly value the philosopher's knowledge of this law of nature, nor be willing even to credit it, if he could not talk nonsense to them about the causes of attraction, &c. The truth is, that the knowledge of the law, or, as it is sometimes called, the general fact, is all that is wanted; and this may be just as usefully applied, as if we could understand how such a property is impressed on matter.

Let us take a similar case in a science, with which a physician should be particularly conversant. The doctor is asked, what is the principle of life, and the inquirer expects to hear of some essence or quintessence, or of something like an electrick fluid, of which the experimentalist may exhibit at least a fleeting sight. He answers, that he knows not what life is; that he knows only the laws of life. He explains by stating, that living, vegetable, and animal bodies are endued with certain properties and powers, which are not found in dead matter; that these are attributed to the principle of life; and that if they are discovered, although the other be unknown, the object of the medical philosopher is obtained. Now such an answer is not satisfactory, even to men of understanding, who are not conversant with natural philosophy; and they will be much better pleased with a pretender, who gives them an hypothesis about some humour floating in the blood, or through the nerves, which is the essential spirit, or animating principle of living beings. The truth is, that men who are unacquainted with such subjects, are more taken with that philosophy, which represents the world as supported on the shoulof Atlas, who sits on an elephant, who rests on a tortoise, &c. Many learned se[illegible]ers after knowledge commit similar errours.

I have stated one reason, which renders it difficult for physicians, to answer the scientifick questions of their patients. Perhaps I have enlarged too much in the illustration of this reason; but it is a favourite subject. This reason is founded on the presumption, that the physician is perfectly able to give a satisfactory answer to one, qualified to understand it. There is a difficulty of another kind, which likewise may exist, while the physician is perfectly competent to the necessary explanation; and it is one which many persons feel, while they do not clearly recognize it.

The practice of physick is an art; and the precepts of this art, as of every other, are drawn from the principles, not of one science only, but of many. The point of art in any operation is, if I may so express myself, at the intersection of the rules or lines, which are afforded by the different principles, on which that operation is founded. But as circumstances vary, the point of intersection shifts, and so the conduct of the artist. Many principles then require to be stated and explained with precision, to account for one little operation. The blacksmith is continually performing mechanical and chemical operations, and these are variously combined. No one would undervalue his handicraft, because he could not make his employer understand in five minutes all those scientifick principles, on which his operations depend. He indeed is not required to understand the sciences on which his art is founded, while the physician is. But the difficulty is, not that the artist does not understand the subject, for I am now supposing that he does; but that he cannot make another comprehend at once the combination of principles, with which principles individually the inquirer is unacquainted. It is like talking to a blind man, who knows not what colours are, of the effect of a mixture of colours.

Now I have been writing a page to persuade men that they are blind, so far as respects subjects which they have not investigated; and I may add, that, in many instances, no common minds can suddenly flash light enough on such subjects, as to make them rightly impress their torpid organs of sight. If I have succeeded to persuade my readers, that their neighbours are thus blind, it is as much as I have a right to expect. It is hard to persuade a man, that he himself does not see every thing, which is put before his eyes; although this happens every day to every man, both in the physical and moral world.

The limits of a periodical publication require, that I should postpone, for the present, the further consideration of this subject.

C.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

The following is a description of the famous falls of Niagara, written by a gentleman of this state, who visited them a few months since; and although it is not given as any thing new, yet it may serve to remind some of your readers, that no man ever repented a visit to that mighty cataract, and may induce them to go and behold the greatest natural curiosity of which their country can boast. T.

JOURNAL.

Chippeway, *Sept.* 4, 1805.

After a hearty breakfast we set off (a party of four) provided with a guide and a bottle of wine, to follow the footsteps of Volney and Weld to the falls of Niagara, distant about two miles. The day was fine, with scarcely a breeze to interrupt the smooth expanse of the river before us. The distant noise of the cataract was much beneath our expectations, and all we saw of the falls, for half a mile, was the cloud of spray, which rose above them. This foretold some great cause.

Proceeding onwards, we come to a view of the rapids, which for half a mile above the main pitch throw the immense waters into great turbulence and foam. As we proceed, the banks of the river gradually become from five to fifty feet above the level of the river. Coming to a house on the bank of the river opposite the falls, we leave the road, and descend by an exceedingly steep path to a rich plain below; now entering a thick wood and shrubbery, very wet and muddy, we pick our way to Table rock, the projecting point, where strangers are first carried.

Here we gaze at the mighty sight of an immense river, precipitating itself one hundred and fifty feet perpendicularly into an abyss, the bottom of which (owing to the spray) cannot be seen.

Our guide, leaving one of the party on Table rock, conducted us a small distance down, which gave us, as it were, a profile view of the rock, on which our companion stood. We were terrified and astonished; we beheld a flat rock, not more than two feet thick, and of itself projecting ten feet, and the rock under it hollowing into caverns to the water, as appeared to us fifty or sixty feet more; we saw our companion, standing almost in air, over the dreadful crags below, ready, it would seem, with the rocks themselves to fall! Every one involuntarily cried out to him to retire, while the guide, smiling at our unnecessary fears, conducts us back to the further bank we had descended, where we stopped awhile to renovate our moral and physical strength.

Our next object is to descend Simcoe's ladder, before we arrive at the top of which, we have to pass down the steep bank, as before, and go over a plain nearly the same as in the path to Table rock.

We followed the guide by the ladder, leading down a rude precipice, which is continued along for a quarter of a mile to the falls, and is now the real bank of the river. Arrived at the bottom of this long ladder, we got down as well as we could, a height of about fifty feet further, descending over mounds of earth, bushes, and pieces of rock, tumbled together from the precipice above.

We are now nearly on a level with the river below the falls, which are a quarter of a mile distant, and the way to them exceedingly rough; but, excepting one pass, not dangerous. This, I am confident, very few would attempt in any other place than this; but the scenes around are so grand, as to inspire every one with courage.

When we had come within five hundred feet of the falls, we stopped to survey the objects around us, which are in the highest degree grand and terrifick. Above us hung a precipice, an hundred and twenty or thirty feet high, full of loose stones, which are daily falling, and the *possibility*, that one *may* fall upon you in passing, inspires the mind with no inconsiderable degree of alarm. Turning our backs to the precipice, we see before us (on the opposite side of the river, placed on a perpendicular rock as high as the falls) Goat island, dividing the falls into two great sheets, four or five hundred feet apart. The farthest are called Little falls, and the other Horse-shoe falls. The former is called little, only in comparison with the Horse-shoe falls; and not being so easy of access, and discharging less water, is seldom visited by strangers. Then looking, as our way leads, we see the main fall, tumbling its prodigious waters into the bed of the lower river, and running off, wildly foaming beneath a cloud of spray in one general roar and confusion, magnificent beyond description.

We now proceeded, the spray wetting us more and more as we advanced, and the rocks becoming more slippery, but not dangerous. Before we arrived at the caverns, about one hundred feet from the falling water, where we took our stand, we were completely drenched by the violent beating of the spray against us, which, driven on by the furious rushing wind, that issues out of the horrid caverns under the falls, sometimes hid us from a sight of the falling waters and even from each other.

Having halted, Mr. B— first cautiously proceeded to get under the pitch, and, returning after a few moments, thinks he went about twenty feet under, but was hid nearly the whole time from us by the spray.

I was the next to attempt, amidst the mighty terrours around, a survey of these caverns, horrible as death, and where he alone seemed to hold empire. Facing the whirlwind, and necessarily disregarding the pelting spray, I crept as fast as the slippery crags would admit, without once stopping to think of danger. I went, as well as I could judge, fifteen or twenty feet under, or beyond the outer edge of the sheet. I durst venture no farther, but, reclining in a posture between sitting and laying, I first seized a small stone to bring away with me, an eternal remembrance of the place I took it from. This done, I paused for a few moments.

.....To attempt to describe my feelings, or to particularise each howling horrour around me, were vain. It is not the thousand rivers of water, that tumble from above...nor the piled-up precipice of slippery crags, on the top of which you lay...nor the furious whirlwind, driving like shot the spray against you, threatening at each gust to throw you into the merciless jaws of death below...nor the thundering roar of the cataract...not all these, that bring each its particular terrour; but the whole of them together, striking the mind at once, appal the senses, and the weakened judgment gives way to the idea, that the rock above, which of itself supports the mighty whole, has loosened from its foundations and actually started to crush the whole below !

.....I escaped before it fell... soon found my companions, and looking up, saw, half surprised, the hoary rook still firm on its foundations, amidst this seeming crush of worlds.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SILVA. *No.* 11.

Silva gerit frondes.—OVID.

POPE.

Pope was fond of imitating the ancients, though what he borrowed he improved, and his own thoughts were not inferiour to theirs. Some very beautiful lines, in his Elegy to the memory of an unfortunate young lady, he seems to have imitated from Ovid ; and I am surprized that Dr. Warton, in his excellent edition of Pope's works, has not remarked the resemblance. I shall quote both the English and Latin, that the reader may judge for himself.

What can atone, oh ! ever-injured shade,
Thy fate unpitied, and thy rites unpaid ?
No friend's complaint, no kind domestick tear
Pleased thy pale ghost, or graced thy mournful bier.
By foreign hands thy dying eyes were closed,
By foreign hands thy decent limbs composed,
By foreign hands thy humble grave adorned,
By strangers honoured, and by strangers mourned.

Though these are exquisite lines, (for no man, says Hume, can write verses with equal spirit and elegance to Mr. Pope) yet the following passage of Ovid unquestionably supplied the materials.

Ergo ego nec lachrymas matris moritura videbo,
Nec, mea qui digitis lumina condat, erit.
Spiritus infelix peregrinas ibit in auras,
Nec positos artus unget amica manus,
Ossa superstabunt volucres inhumata marinæ.

Ovid's Epistles. Ariadne to Theseus. lin. 119.

It has been the fashion, of late years, to depreciate the poetical merit of Pope, and to exalt, in strains of lavish encomium, the mushroom poetasters of the day. A writer, who with the rapidity of a Blackmore, shall finish an epick in six weeks, attracts the admiration of many, who consider celerity in writing as a proof of extraordinary genius. The reverse of this however is true ; and the greatest master-pieces of writing, far from being dashed off at a hit, have consumed a very considerable portion of time in their composition. Perfection is the reward of great labour, united with great genius. The co-operation of both can alone ensure success. Without genius, labour would be dull and insipid ; without labour, genius would be absurd and extravagant. Had the Alcander of Pope, an epick poem which he wrote at sixteen, been preserved, he would probably have been deemed a great poet by those, who now dispute his claims to that character. These gentlemen require originality, at the expense of whatever absurdity. They prefer the wilderness to the garden, though the latter may possess all the beauties of nature, without her deformities. But true taste admires nature only in her charms, not in the gross. Neither poet nor painter would describe a quagmire, nor expose to view those parts of the person, which decency clothes. Yet nature has claims as equal to what is concealed, as to what is exhibited.

'True wit is nature to advantage drest,'

not a ragged gypsy, nor a tawdry strumpet. High, masterly execution is what constitutes a preeminent writer. He exhibits the best thoughts, exprest in the best manner. When he borrows, he improves; what he imitates, he excels. He commands a certain felicity of style, which, though simple, is highly figurative, which convinces by its energy, and charms by its beauty. Of all the ancient poets Pope most resembles Virgil. He has the same correctness, the same majesty of numbers, allowing for the inferiority of a modern language. There is scarcely a page of Virgil, his Georgics excepted, in which we cannot trace him imitating or translating whole passages from other writers, so that he has fewer pretensions to originality, than almost any poet ancient or modern. And yet what ancient author is so universally read, or affords so much pleasure, Horace perhaps excepted? Pope has more originality than Virgil, but less than Dryden. Yet who reads more of Dryden than a single satire and a single ode? Pope is the poet of the human species, the favourite of all ages, the oracle of all professions. Originality! Fiddledy diddledy.

BAYLE.

Bayle was a great and original genius. I believe, that it is not generally known, that his character is admirably drawn by Saurin, which I doubt not will be more acceptable to many readers of the Silva, than any original remarks of the present writer. 'He was one of those extraordinary men (says that eloquent preacher) whom the greatest wit cannot reconcile with himself, and whose opposite qualities leave us room to doubt, whether we ought to look upon him as the best, or as the worst of men. On the one hand, he was a great philosopher, who knew how to distinguish truth from falsehood, who could at one view perceive all the consequences of a principle, and discover how they are linked together. On the other hand, he was a great sophist, who undertook to confound truth with falsehood, and knew how to draw false inferences from the principles he supported. On the one hand, a man of learning and knowledge, who had read all that can be read, and remembered all that can be remembered. On the other hand, ignorant, or at least feigning to be so, with regard to the most common things; proposing such difficulties, as had been a thousand times answered, and urging objections, which a schoolboy could not make without blushing. On the one hand, attacking the most eminent men, opening a large field for their labours, leading them through the most difficult roads, and, if he did not vanquish them, giving them at least a great deal of trouble to vanquish him. On the other hand, a man who made use of the worst of authors, to whom he was lavish of his praises; and who disgraced his writings by quoting such names as a learned mouth never pronounced. On the one hand, free, at least in appearance, from all the passions, which are inconsistent with the spirit of christianity; grave in his discourses, temperate in his diet, austere in his manner of living. On the other hand, employing all the strength of his genius to overthrow the foundations of moral virtue, attacking, as much as lay in his power, chastity, modesty, and all the christian virtues. On the one side, appealing to the throne of the most severe orthodoxy; going to the purest springs, borrowing his arguments from the least suspected writers. On the other hand, following the paths of hereticks, proposing again the objections of the ancient heresiarchs, lending them new arms, and collecting together in our age all the errours of past ages. May that man, who had been endowed with so many talents, be acquitted before God of the ill use he made of them! May that Jesus, whom he so often attacked, have expiated his sins!'

PARNELL AND VOLTAIRE.

The story of the hermit, which Parnell tells in verse, Voltaire relates in prose, precisely in the same order, in his romance of Zadig. Quere, which is the plagiary, or have they both borrowed the story from another? Voltaire continued an author for more than sixty years, but still I think that Parnell must have been his senior. Few have written so well as Voltaire on such an infinite variety of subjects; but in every department of literature he has been excelled by some. His immortality would have been more secure, had he confined his genius to any one species of composition, though his temporary popularity would have been less extensive.

COWPER AND THOMSON.

I am astonished that any one can prefer Cowper to Thomson. The Task is indeed a poem of considerable merit, exhibiting an original cast of thought, and a strong imagination. But it does not possess the same interest as the Seasons, nor do I recollect any passages in it eminently beautiful. There is so little order and connexion in this poem, that you might transpose the paragraphs as you read without injury. The style is indeed more pure and classical than that of Thomson, which abounds with gorgeous epithets and ill-sounding compound adjectives. But the latter has infinitely the advantage in the superiour interest which he excites, in more vigour of conception, in greater tenderness and delicacy, and in every poetical embellishment. I give the Seasons an annual perusal, and they always afford me fresh pleasure. I have never been able to read the Task a second time. As to Cowper's productions in rhyme, if any man can read them at all, I shall rather applaud his patience, than imitate his example. He seems to have no ear for harmony, so that, were we not acquainted with his age, we should scarcely suspect him of being a modern. Though there may be harmony without poetry, there can be no good poetry without harmony. The want of this indispensible requisite constitutes the principal charge of Horace against Lucilius, as the possession of it in a pre-eminent degree gives to Virgil and Pope the exalted rank which they hold among the poets of their respective countries. The satires and epistles of Horace we probably know not the true method of reading. We cannot at present discover in them that harmony, the want of which he censures in Lucilius, and which, for this very reason, they must undoubtedly possess. I once endeavoured to read Cowper's Homer, but I found it an herculean task, and I was no Hercules. It may possess every other merit, but certainly wants the power of keeping its readers awake. The first lines of the Seasons are ridiculous, as they contain absurd imagery. Observe.

Come, gentle Spring, ætherial mildness, come ;
And from the bosom of yon dropping cloud,
While musick wakes around, veiled in a shower
Of shadowing roses, on our plains descend.

I quote from memory, but I believe correctly. Now reduce this to painting, and what kind of picture does it present ? Spring, an allegorical personage, is described as descending from the bosom of *a dropping cloud* (quere, what does the cloud drop ?) *while musick wakes around.* What musick, vocal, or instrumental ? *nescio quid, veiled in a shower of shadowing roses.* If Thomson had often written as ill as this, there would be no comparison between him and Cowper. But at present, as a poet, I think the latter decidedly inferiour. Though he may possess no passage so faulty as the one just quoted, yet he seldom rises above the level of mediocrity. Notwithstanding that the style of Cowper is unusually chaste, yet is there a sombre cast of thought, which seems to proceed from a mind not altogether sound and at ease.

EDUCATION.

EDUCATION has been greatly improved in this country of late years. But though much has been done, yet much remains to be done. Our literary discipline is well calculated for common purposes, and our professional men are little inferiour to those of other countries in the knowledge of their profession. But here our claims to praise must end. Our lawyers are mere lawyers, our physicians are mere physicians, our divines are mere divines. Everything smells of the shop, and you will, in a few minutes conversation, infallibly detect a man's profession. We seldom meet here with an accomplished character, a young man of fine genius and very general knowledge, the scholar and the gentleman, united. Such a character is not uncommon in Europe, but is here *a rara avis in terris.* Whence proceeds this difference ? From the inferiority of education among us. Our schoolmasters receive a mere pittance, and are consequently men of inferiour talents. Every man, capable of instructing well, follows some profession or business, able to support him. A preceptor, without genius, can never inspire a pupil with the love of learning. Instead of reading Virgil and Horace with the enthusiasm of an *amateur*, and of explaining them with the taste and acuteness of a Busby, he will barely require a *verbatim* translation, and a knowledge of the rules of grammar. The spirit and beauties of the author remain without notice ; and what has never been taught will seldom be discovered. They go to college with but a smattering of learning, and often leave it with still less. For the same system of economy pervades our academick walls, and a college tutor receives rather less than a Boston labourer. Those, who are qualified for nothing else, consequently become tutors, and our guides to Parnassus are themselves ignorant of the road that leads thither.

The schoolmasters of Europe, particularly of Great-Britain, are amply rewarded for their labours, and generally consist of the best scholars in the kingdom. The employment is honourable and lucrative, and is almost always rewarded with some distinguished ecclesiastical preferment, the preceptors themselves being always clergymen of the established church. I shall close this article with the character of Dr. Sumner, master of Harrow-school, drawn by his pupil, Sir W. Jones, in the preface to his treatise on Persian poetry. The translation of course must be very inferiour to the eloquence of the original Latin.

'The reader, I hope, will pardon me, if I cannot here resist the temptation of extolling the virtues of this most learned man, who was my intimate friend, and of expressing just sorrow at his lamented death. He was a man of distinguished genius and integrity, of admirable temper, polite manners, and exquisite learning. He possessed, beyond any instructer I ever knew, the faculty of communicating knowledge; and such was the pleasantry of his deportment, that it was difficult to determine, whether he was more agreeable to his friends, or scholars. In Grecian and Roman literature he was profoundly skilled; and, though like another Socrates, he wrote little himself, no one could more ably detect the faults, or point out the beauties of authors of every description. Had fortune destined him for the bar or senate, and not confined him to the employment of tuition, he would have yielded to no one in eloquence, which is exclusively cultivated in Great Britain. For he possessed, if not in perfection, at least in a very high degree, all the accomplishments commendable in an orator, a musical voice, purity of language, a flowing style, uniting elegance and wit with a most tenacious memory; in a word, the eyes, the countenance, the action, not of a player, but of another Demosthenes.'

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

THE REMARKER.

No. 5.

Darent operam censores, ne quid respublica [literarum] *detrimenti caperet.*—Sall. Cat.

SO little have the writers of our country been accustomed to the rigour of a critical tribunal, that, to secure a comfortable seat in some of the out-houses belonging to the temple of fame, nothing has been hitherto necessary, but the resolution to write, and the folly to publish. While, however, the same models of excellence are accessible, the same laws of taste are promulgated, and the same language is vernacular on both sides of the Atlantick, I know not why the sentences of criticism should not be executed in all their rigour on these western shores; or why the majesty of the republick of letters should be insulted with impunity in the remotest provinces of the empire. Every man of reading, who has watched the jealous spirit of the times, must have observed, that whenever an American work is censured in the journals of British criticism, their judgment is attributed to some unextinguished remains of national animosity; and when a critick among ourselves has sometimes ventured to speak in a tone of authority, he has been set down for a conceited imitator of foreign impertinence. So rare have been the instances among us of manly and unprejudiced criticism, that, to point out the faults of a living author, instead of making him grateful, only makes him mad; and he discovers all the fury, which is felt by an antiquated belle, when her little niece unluckily espies a gray hair among the sable honours of her head, and innocently presumes to pull out the intruder.

So imperfectly has the right of criticism been attended to among us, that many a sober citizen, I doubt not, is unable to distinguish between the privilege of finding fault with an author, and the wickedness of publishing a defamatory libel. But in truth this right of literary censure is bestowed upon the critick by the author himself. Every man who publishes, virtually offers a challenge to the publick, or at least courts their decision. By claiming praise, he runs the hazard of censure; and they, in whose power it is to confer the one, have undoubtedly a right to administer the other. 'S'ils veulent avoir en nous des admirateurs, il faut qu'ils nous permettent d'oser etre leurs juges,' says the charming La Harpe, in the introduction to his Lycæum. But if we have a right to judge, we must have also a right to laugh; for nothing can compel us to read with gravity in print, what would have convulsed us with merriment, if we had heard it in conversation. If indeed we laugh at what is not laughable, or applaud what is not commendable, or hiss at what is not absurd, we run the common hazard of a critick in the pit, when he has clapped in the wrong place, and is sufficiently disgraced by finding himself alone.

It is plainly no violation of the laws of literary courtesy to hold up dulness and absurdity to the derision of the publick; for it has long since been tacitly agreed, that if an author has a right to be dull, the critick has a right to be severe. Common equity declares, that one side ought not to claim a monopoly of privileges. Nothing but the immunity of satirical criticism can impose the slightest restraint on the vanity of authorship. By ridicule too, the taste of the publick is insensibly corrected and refined; for many, who have no time to listen to a reason, are always ready to join in a laugh; and thousands, who understand nothing of the principles of taste, can see an absurdity when exposed by another. How far it is lawful to distress an author by ridicule or censure, without transgressing the laws of christian benevolence, I am not casuist enough to determine. I will give you the opinion of the greatest master of moral science, as well of literary discussion, which the last age produced. "As it very seldom happens, that the rage of extemporary criticism inflicts fatal or lasting wounds, I know not that the laws of benevolence entitle this distress to much sympathy. The diversion of baiting an author has the sanction of all ages and nations, and is more lawful than the sport of teizing other animals, because, for the most part, he comes voluntarily to the stake, furnished, as he imagines, by the patron powers of literature, with resistless weapons and impenetrable armour, with the mail of the boar of Erymanth, and the paws of the lion of Nemea." [Johnson's Rambler, No. 176.]

Authors boldly encounter the silent neglect of the publick, and at the same time complain of the opinion of an individual, and imagine themselves outraged by the censure of a reviewer. While they see with much composure their favourite productions quietly devoured by the moths, those merciless reviewers, who have no more respect for a polished than for a clumsy period, and make as hearty a meal upon a genius as upon a dunce; they will take instant offence at a critick, who presumes to separate in their works the dry from the nutritious, who accidentally makes a wry face at what is nauseous, or involuntarily rejects what is insipid. It is a common trick of incensed authors to rail against reviewers, as men who have impudently set themselves up as guardians of publick taste, or rather as a band of literary executioners. Indeed there is some show of reason in the complaint, that anonymous reviews are an unjust assumption of authority, because they in some measure include the power of punishing, as well as of judging; which powers, in every free state, should be kept perfectly distinct. To explain this anomaly I will attempt to give you some hints, which I have gathered from Bayle, who was long a dictator in the republick of letters.

The commonwealth of learning is the only permanent example of pure and original democracy. In this state, under the protection of truth and reason, whose authority alone is acknowledged, wars may be carried on with the utmost innocence, though not always with impunity; for here every man is sovereign, and every man also under the jurisdiction of every other. The laws of *civil society* have in no degree abridged the independence of the state of nature, as to errour and ignorance. No man can be excluded by the social compact from his unalienable right to be a fool; and, on the other side, every man retains the right of the sword, and may exercise it without a commission. "If it is asked," says Bayle, "why the civil authority should leave every one at liberty to expose the mistakes and follies of authors, it may be answered, that to criticise a book tends only to show, that the author does not possess a certain degree of knowledge or of talent.—Now, as an author may enjoy all the rights and privileges of the community, in which he lives, notwithstanding this defect of knowledge and of talent; and as his reputation, as an honest man and a good subject of the commonwealth, does not receive by it the least blemish, it is evident, no usurpation is made on the majesty of the state, by showing to the publick the faults of a book." [Bayle's Dict. art. *Catius.* Note D.]

If then the correlative rights of publishing and of censuring nonsense remain alike unimpaired by the conventions, and established by the immemorial customs of society, it follows, that, if every writer of a book may publish anonymously, the writer of a review cannot be compelled to declare himself; and, as the object of criticism is not persons, but works, there is no cowardice in this concealment. There is nothing dishonourable in firing at a senseless mark out of an ambush, or from behind a tree.

It will perhaps be esteemed a more difficult task to maintain the expediency, than to establish the right of critical severity, in the present state of American literature. It will be said, that our country is young, and therefore her infantile productions in the field of letters deserve rather to be cherished by the gentle and perfumed gales of flattery, than to be checked by the chills of neglect, or beaten down by the blasts of angry criticism. It will be said, that our most able minds will continue to shun the dangers of authorship, if every thing, which issues from the press, must be subjected to the unrelenting severity of anonymous remark. But is he a friend to the literature of his country, who wishes to excuse it from examination? Does he think, that the easy multiplication of feeble works will eventually establish a solid basis for our future fame? No: the everlasting oaks of our forests were not raised in a hot-house. The indulgent remarks of candid friends, the simpering smiles of kitchen-criticks, the puffing advertisements of newspapers, and the lullaby strains of poetasters, will never patronize the growth of solid learning, nor confer immortality on the authors of our country. We have yet to learn, that to write correctly and to think sensibly ought to be made inseparable habits; if then, when a poet is a dunce, we say that he is a genius; when an orator talks fustian, we say that he is eloquent; when a writer is solecistical, we say that he is a little inaccurate; or when a book is composed in a Babylonish dialect, we excuse it because it is American, we are only feeding children with sweetmeats, or wrapping them up warm against the cold, and thus laying the foundation of perpetual vanity, imbecility, and idiotism.

The earliest reviews, which appeared in Europe, were undoubtedly the most gentle in their animadversions. It is true also, that they were recommended by some of the most celebrated names, which the annals of literature can furnish. Bayle, Le Clerc, Basnage, and S'Gravesande* did not disdain to be editors of literary journals. But the first has always been censured for the encomiastick strain of his remarks, and the others commonly restricted themselves, except where their peculiar prejudices were concerned, to bare analyses of the works, which they announced. Since that time the state of the republick of letters has essentially altered. Then the literature of Europe was just awaking from its long repose in the cloisters of monks, and the legends of popish superstition. The liberty to think, and the disposition to write, demanded every stimulus and every encouragement. Now the licentiousness of the press has become a greater evil, than its inactivity, and instances of superfetation are more frequent than of sterility. Then the laws of fine writing were imperfectly established, and rarely understood; now they are or ought to be familiar to school boys and abecedarians. Then the method of conducting literary journals was to be ascertained by experiment, and an author was to be flattered into a quiet acknowledgment of their privileges; now every candidate for fame has it in his power to consult innumerable precedents, statutes, and declarations of criticism, by which the verdict of the publick and the sentence of the reviewer may be previously and probably conjectured. Then authorship had not become a trade; plagiarism was not practised with unblushing effrontery; nor were the scraps of every author's scrutoire swept out upon the publick; now every starvling pedant writes for bread, and all that is necessary to constitute an author is, the industry to borrow or to steal materials, till he is able to swell out a volume. In such a state of things, it is not enough that a review contains an analysis of a work, for some works defy analysis; neither is it enough correctly to state the subjects of a book, for that might be done by transcribing the table of contents; but the faithful reviewer is daily called upon to detect literary thefts, to expose absurdities, to correct blunders, to check the contagion of false taste, to rescue the publick from the impositions of dullness, and to assert the majesty of learning and of truth.

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* Bayle began the *Nouvelles de la Republique de lettres*, in 1684, but it was discontinued in 1687, on account of his ill health. Basnage de Beauval wrote a sequel of them under the title of *L'Histoire des ouvrages des Scavans*, which commenced in 1687, and was concluded in 24 vols. 12mo. in 1709. Le Clerc conducted the *Bibliothêque Universelle* from 1686 to 1693, 25 vols. 12mo. the *Bibliothêque Choisie* from 1703 to 1718, 28 vols. 12mo. and the *Bibliothêque Ancienne & Moderne* from 1714 to 1727, 29 vols. 12mo. S'Gravesande, the celebrated philosopher, edited *Le Journal Literaire* from 1713 to 1722.

In stating these lofty pretensions of the critick, we had almost forgotten the claims of the author. If I am asked, what redress can an author obtain, who has been ignorantly criticised, or unmercifully castigated; I answer; the redress of an author, who deserves any, will always be found in the ultimate decision of the publick. "The satire of Pope," says Johnson, "which brought Theobald and Moore into contempt, dropped impotent from Bentley, like the javelin of Priam." Besides, the name of an author will always command more intrinsick respect, than that of a critick. The former naturally takes rank of the latter in the ceremonial of literature. It requires less ability to detect faults, than to avoid them; but even if it were not so, the author should remember, that he forever retains the right of primogeniture, and the advantage of pre-occupying the attention of the publick; and while authors may exist without criticks, the latter cannot maintain themselves a moment, if writers should withhold the customary prey.

As to the herd of vain and disappointed authors I have long perplexed myself to find a remedy for their chagrin. I can recommend no better mode of avenging themselves on the criticks and on the publick, than by obstinately refusing to publish any more. It is true that there are many inconveniences, which would follow so decisive a measure; for the world would thus be deprived of much harmless diversion, and perhaps some of the brethren of the type would be thrown out of employment; but whenever I begin to be alarmed by these solemn consequences, and tremble at the growing tyranny of criticism, I find myself relieved by the humour of the following passage in Baillet, with which I will close the present number.

..."L'inconvenient de voir le monde sans livres ne sera jamais à craindre, puisqu' il est à présumer qu'il y aura toujours plus d'ecrivains que de gens sages. Ceux qui remarquerent que S. Augustin exhortoit fortement toute le monde à la continence, se crurent obligez de lui remontrer, qu'il prît garde aux desordres qui en pouvoient naître, & qui se chacun vouloit garder sa virginité, le genre humain periroit en peu de tems. S. Augustin se moqua d'eux, parce qu'il savoit bien qu'il ne seroit jamais pris au mot, & qu'il y auroit toujours assez de personnes de l'un & de l'autre sexe, qui ne quitteroient pas leur part des plaisirs du mariage. Que l'on dise tout ce qu'on voudra pour la continence, cela n'empêchera point les enfantemens; l'on peut assurer aussi que quelque chose que l'on dise, ou que l'on fasse contre les auteurs, rien ne sera capable d'empecher qu'ils n'enfantent livre sur livre. La superfetation est incomparablement plus fréquente parmi eux que parmi les femmes; car combien de fois commencent-ils un nouveau dessein, avant que d'avoir achevé le précédent. Ainsi l'on ne se doit pas allarmer de leurs menaces; il est vrai que quand ils voyent qu'on maltraite leurs ecrits, ils forment le même dessein qu' Apollon forma lors que son fils Phaëton fut tué d'un coup de foudre; je veux dire qu'ils songent à ne plus répandre la lumiere dans l'univers; mais cela ne dure pas, ils reviennent de ces premiers mouvemens; & on les embarrasseroit un peu si on les défioit dans les formes d'executer leur menace. Ils aimeroient mieux qu'on se gouvernât à leur égard, comme l'on fit envers Apollon, qui se vit trèshumblement suplié de ne laisser pas le monde dans les tenebres,

——Neve velit tenebras inducere rebus,
Supplice voce rogant.

Ils seroient même ravis qu'on les en priât avec l'autorité du commandement & de la menace, comme on la pratiqua envers Apollon,

——Precibusque minas regaliter addit."

[Baillet Jugemens des Sçavans. Tom. 4.]

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SANS SOUCI:

No. 1.

Stealing and giving sweets. SHAKESP.

The meanness and servility of Dryden's hyperbolical adulation, in his dedications, has been severely and justly censured by Dr. Johnson; but the encomiastic language which he always used in these compositions was rather the vice of the times, than of the man. The dedication of almost every author of that age was equally loaded with flattery, and sometimes far surpassed any of Dryden's in extravagance of praise. Of all Dryden's dedications, the one, from which we made the following extracts, addressed to her royal highness the duchess Mary of Este, daughter of the duke of Modena, while it gives abundant proofs of the variety and luxuriance of his fancy, exhibits the most perfect specimen of what is called the celestial style. The duchess was, at the time of her marriage, little more than fourteen, and, according to Macpherson, of exquisite beauty.

'*To her Royal Highness the Duchess.*

'MADAM,

'Ambition is so far from being a vice in poets, that it is almost impossible for them to succeed without it. Imagination must be raised by a desire of fame, to a desire of pleasing; and they, whom in all ages poets have endeavoured most to please, have been the beautiful and the great. Beauty is their deity to which they sacrifice, and greatness is their guardian angel which protects them. Both these are so eminently joined in the person of your Royal Highness, that it were not easy for any but a poet to determine which of them outshines the other. But I confess, Madam, I am already biassed in my choice. I can easily resign to others the praise of your illustrious family, and that glory which you derive from a long-continued race of princes, famous for their actions both in peace and war; I can give up to the historians of your country the names of so many generals and heroes which croud their annals; and to our own, the hopes of those which you are to produce for the British chronicle. I can yield, without envy, to the nation of poets, the family of Este, to which Ariosto and Tasso have owed their patronage, and to which the world has owed their poets; but I could not, without extreme reluctance, resign the throne of your beauty to another hand. But with whatsoever vanity this new honour of being your poet has filled my mind, I confess myself too weak for the inspiration; the priest was always unequal to the oracle; the god within him was too mighty for his breast. He laboured with the sacred revelation, and there was more of the mystery left behind, than divinity itself could enable him to express. I can but discover a part of your excellencies to the world; and that too according to the measure of my own weakness. Like those who have surveyed the moon by glasses, I can only tell of a new and shining world above us, but not relate the riches and glories of the place.' .... 'Fortune has, indeed, but rendered justice to so much excellence, in setting it so high to publick view; or rather Providence has done justice to itself, in placing the most perfect workmanship of heaven, where it may be admired by all beholders. Had the sun and stars been seated lower, their glory had not been communicated to all at once; and the Creator had wanted so much of his praise, as he had made your condition more obscure; but he has placed you so near a crown, that you add a lustre to it by your beauty. You are joined to a prince who only could deserve you; whose conduct, courage, and success in war, whose fidelity to his royal brother, whose love for his country, whose constancy to his friends, whose bounty to his servants, whose justice to merit, whose inviolable truth, and whose magnanimity in all his actions, seem to have been rewarded by heaven by the gift of you. You are never seen but you are blest; and I am sure you bless all those who see you.'.... 'Thus, madam, in the midst of crowds, you reign in solitude; and are adored with the deepest veneration, that of silence. It is true, you are above all mortal wishes; no man desires impossibilities, because they are beyond the reach of nature. To hope to be a god, is folly exalted into madness; but by the laws of our creation, we are obliged to adore him, and are permitted to love him at human distance. It is the nature of perfection to be attractive, but the excellency of the object refines the nature of the love. It strikes an impression of awful reverence; it is indeed that love which is more properly a zeal than passion. It is the rapture which anchorites find in prayer, when a beam of the Divinity shines upon them; that which makes them despise all worldly objects; and yet it is all but contemplation. They are seldom visited from above; but a single vision so transports them, that it makes up the happiness of their lives.'....'But all my praises are but as a bull-rush cast upon a stream; if they sink not, it is because they are borne up by the current, which supports their lightness; but they are carried round again, and return on the eddy where they first began. I can proceed no farther than your beauty,and even on that too I have said so little, considering the greatness of the subject, that, like him who would lodge a bowl upon a precipice, either my praise falls back by the weakness of the delivery, or stays not on the top, but rolls over, and is lost on the other side.'

....

In a tea conversation, at the house of Sir Joshua Reynolds, speaking of Percy's reliques of ancient English poetry, Dr. Johnson ridiculed that kind of writing, by addressing, extempore, the following stanzas to the young lady that made the tea:

I pray thee, gentle Renny, dear,
  That thou wilt give to me,
With cream and sugar tempered well,
  Another dish of tea.

Nor fear that I, my gentle maid,
  Shall long detain the cup,
When once unto the bottom I
  Have drank the liquor up.

Yet hear at last this mournful truth,
  Nor hear it with a frown,
Thou canst not make the tea so fast
  As I can gulp it down.

POETRY.

EXTRACTS FROM
SOUTHEY's MADOC.

….

AS he ſpake, I ſaw
The clouds hang thick and heavy o'er the deep;
And heavily, upon the long ſlow ſwell,
The veſſel laboured on the labouring ſea.
The reef-points rattled on the ſhivering ſail,
At fits, the ſudden guſt howled ominous;
Anon, with unremitting fury raged;
High rolled the mighty billows, and the blaſt
Swept from their ſheeted ſides the ſhowery foam.
Vain, now, were all the ſeamen's homeward hopes,
Vain all their ſkill! .. we drove before the ſtorm.
'Tis pleaſant, by the chearful hearth, to hear
Of tempeſts, and the dangers of the deep,
And pauſe at times, and feel that we are ſafe;
Then liſten to the perilous tale again,
And, with an eager and ſuſpended ſoul,
Woo Terror to delight us; .. but to hear
The roaring of the raging elements,
To know all human ſkill, all human ſtrength,
Avail not; to look round, and only ſee
The mountain wave incumbent, with its weight
Of burſting waters, o'er the reeling bark, ..
O God, this is indeed a dreadful thing! ..
And he who hath endured the horrour, once,
Of ſuch an hour, doth never hear the ſtorm
Howl round his home, but he remembers it,
And thinks upon the ſuffering mariner!

…..

And now the orient ſky
Glowed with the ruddy morning, when the Prince
Came to the field. He lifted up his voice,
And ſhouted, Madoc! Madoc! They who heard
The cry, aſtoniſhed, turned; and when they ſaw
The countenance his open helm diſcloſed
They echoed, Madoc! Madoc! Through the hoſt
Spread the miraculous joy, .. He lives! .. he lives!
He comes himſelf in arms! .. Lincoya heard,
As he had raiſed his arm to ſtrike a foe,
And ſtayed the ſtroke, and thruſt him off, and cried,
Go, tell the tidings to thy countrymen,
Madoc is in the war! Tell them his God
Hath ſet the White King free! Aſtoniſhment
Seized on the Azteca; on all who heard,
Amazement and diſmay; and Madoc now
Stood in the foremoſt battle, and his ſword, ..
His own good ſword, .. flaſhed, like the ſudden death
Of lightning, in their eyes.

The King of Aztlan
Heard and beheld, and in his noble heart
Heroick hope aroſe. Forward he moved,
And, in the ſhock of battle, front to front,
Encountered Madoc. A ſtrong ſtatured man
Coanocotzin ſtood, one well who knew
The ways of war, and never yet, in fight,
Had found an equal foe. Adown his back
Hung the long robe of feathered royalty;
Gold fenced his arms and legs; upon his helm
A ſculptured ſnake protends the arrowy tongue;
Around, a coronet of plumes aroſe,
Brighter than beam the rainbow hues of light,
Or than the evening glories, which the ſun
Slants o'er the moving many-coloured ſea,
Such their ſurpaſſing beauty; bells of gold
Emboſſed his glittering helmet, and where'er
Their ſound was heard, there lay the preſs of war,
And Death was buſieſt there. Over the breaſt,
And o'er the golden breaſtplate of the King,
A feathery cuiraſs, beautiful to eye,
Light as the robe of peace, yet ſtrong to ſave;
For the ſharp falchion's baffled edge would glide
From its ſmooth ſoftneſs. On his arm he held
A buckler, overlaid with beaten gold.

And ſo he ſtood, guarding his thighs and legs
His breaſt and ſhoulders alſo, with the length
Of his broad ſhield.

Oppoſed in mail complete,
Stood Madoc in his ſtrength. The flexible chains
Gave play to his full muſcles, and diſplayed
How broad his ſhoulders, and his ample breaſt.
Small was his ſhield, there broadeſt where it fenced
The well of life, and gradual to a point
Leſſening; ſteel-ſtrong, and wieldy in his graſp,
It bore thoſe blazoned eaglets, at whoſe ſight,
Along the Marches, or where holy Dee
Through Ceſtrian paſtures rolls his tamer ſtream,
So oft the yeoman had, in days of yore,
Curſing his perilous tenure, wound the horn,
And warden, from the caſtle-tower, rung out
The loud alarum-bell, heard far and wide.
Upon his helm no ſculptured dragon ſate,
Sate no fantaſtick terrors; a white plume
Nodded above, far-ſeen, floating like foam
On the war-tempeſt. Man to man they ſtood,
The King of Aztlan and the Ocean Chief.

Faſt, on the intervening buckler, fell
The Azteca's ſtone faulchion. Who hath watched
The midnight lightnings of the ſummer ſtorm,
That, with their aweful blaze, irradiate heaven,
Then leave a blacker night? ſo quick, ſo fierce,
Flaſhed Madoc's ſword, which, like the ſerpent's tongue,
Seemed double, in its rapid whirl of light.
Unequal arms! for on the Britiſh ſhield
Availed not the ſtone faulchion's brittle edge,
And in the golden buckler, Madoc's ſword
Bit deep. Coanocotzin ſaw, and dropt
The unprofitable weapon, and received
His ponderous club, .. that club, beneath whoſe force,
Driven by his father's arm, Tepollomi
Had fallen ſubdued, .. and faſt and fierce he drove
The maſſy weight on Madoc. From his ſhield,
The deadening force, communicated, ran
Up his ſtunned arm; anon, upon his helm,
Craſhing it came; .. his eyes ſhot fire, his brain
Swam dizzy, .. he recoils, .. he reels, .. again
The club deſcends.

That danger to himſelf
Recalled the Lord of Ocean. On he ſprung,
Within the falling weapon's curve of death,
Shunning its fruſtrate aim, and breaſt to breaſt
He grappled with the king. The pliant mail
Bent to his ſtraining limbs, while plates of gold,
The feathery robe, the buckler's amplitude,
Cumbered the Azteca, and from his arm,
Clenched in the Briton's mighty graſp, at once
He dropt the impeding buckler, and let fall
The unfaſtened club; which, when the Prince beheld,
He thruſt him off, and, drawing back, reſumed
The ſword, which from his wriſt ſuſpended hung,
And twice he ſmote the king; twice from the quilt
Of plumes the iron glides; and lo! the King,
So well his ſoldiers watched their monarch's need,
Shakes in his hand a ſpear.

But now a cry
Burſt on the ear of Madoc, and he ſaw
Through opening ranks, where Urien was conveyed,
A captive to his death. Grief, then, and ſhame
And rage inſpired him. With a mighty blow
He cleft Coanocotzin's helm; expoſed
The monarch ſtood; .. again the thunder-ſtroke
Came on him, and he fell. .. The multitude,
Forgetful of their country and themſelves,
Crowd round their dying King. Madoc, whoſe eye
Still followed Urien, called upon his men,
And, through the broken army of the foe,
Preſt to his reſcue.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For January, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 1.

Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Vol. I. 1785. 4to. pp. 568.

It is honourable to Massachusetts, that in the year 1780, in the midst of the memorable war, which terminated in the establishment of the independence of the United States, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences was incorporated by her enlightened legislature. According to the act of incorporation, "The end and design of the institution of the academy is, to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied; to promote and encourage medical discoveries, mathematical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological and geographical observations; and, improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures and commerce; and in fine, to cultivate every art and science, which may tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity and happines of a free, independent and virtuous people."

In prosecuting the object of their institution, the Society has presented to the publick in this volume, the first fruits of their learned labours. The time, that has elapsed since the publication, will not, we hope, render a review of the contents useless nor uninteresting. To the Memoirs is prefixed the act of incorporation; and also the statutes of the Academy, a list of members, and donors with their respective benefactions. Then follows A PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOURSE, *publickly addressed to the Academy by their first President, the honourable* JAMES BOWDOIN, ESQ. *on his first election to that office.*

The learned and excellent president, after some remarks on the social affections, and their operation in forming societies of various descriptions, observes, in the spirit of true philosophy, with respect to the *American Philosophical Society*, which had been previously formed, and the *American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, "it is hoped, that, as optic glasses, by collecting the solar rays, do assist and strengthen the corporeal sight, so the two societies, by concentring in a proper focus the scattered rays of science, may aid and invigorate the intellectual: benefiting by their productions, not only the communities, in which they are respectively instituted, but America and the world in general: both together resembling some copious river, whose branches, after refreshing the neighbouring region, unite their waters for the fertilizing a more extensive country."

He afterward takes a cursory view of the antiquities of America, and of natural history, two of the subjects, to which the inquiries of the Academy are particularly directed by the act of incorporation;

notices the benefits, which the publick has derived from Harvard College; pays a tribute of gratitude to the generous benefactors of that institution, and addresses to their disembodied spirits the effusions of a heart, strongly impressed with a view of the great and extensive good, arising from their donations. Looking forward to the end of a century from the declaration of independence, he gives a character of the Academy, to which he hopes it will then be entitled in the pages of some eminent American historian.

The liberal spirit, that animates the society, appears in the following extract. "As the society is formed on the most liberal principles, and is of no sect or party in philosophy, it wide extends its arms to embrace the sons of science of every denomination, and wheresoever found; and with the warmth of fraternal affection invites them to a philosophical correspondence: and they may be assured, their communications will be esteemed a favour, and duly acknowledged by the Society."

This discourse appears to flow from a mind, correct, reflecting, well informed; and from a heart, warm with benevolence, patriotism, love of science, and engaged in promoting the best interests of society.

PART I. ASTRONOMICAL AND MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

I. *A method of finding the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree of the ecliptic; with an appendix, containing calculations from corresponding astronomical observations, for determining the difference of meridians between Harvard-Hall, in the University of Cambridge, in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, and the royal observatories at Greenwich and Paris. By the Rev. Joseph Willard, president of the University, and corresponding secretary of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

Previous knowledge of the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree of the ecliptick is requisite in determining the diurnal parallaxes of the heavenly bodies, belonging to the solar system, in latitude and longitude. Such parallaxes are necessarily used in deducing the longitude of places from corresponding observations of solar eclipses, as well as in various other astronomical calculations. The late learned and excellent president of our university has, in this memoir, given a method of finding the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree, which he thinks is not only different from, but to him easier, if not shorter than any other, with which he was acquainted. The method is explained with perspicuity, and illustrated by an example and suitable figures; and may be easily understood by those, who are acquainted with the stereographick projection of the sphere, and spherick trigonometry.

In the appendix, rules are given for calculating the difference of meridians from corresponding observations of solar eclipses; and they are exemplified in determining the longitude of Cambridge from the celebrated royal observatories of Greenwich and Paris. Of the calculations by solar and lunar tables, in which Mayer's were used, it was deemed sufficient to publish merely the results, or particular elements, requisite in the subsequent parts of the process. The principles and rules, stated in the appendix, are well exemplified. It was evidently the intention of the author to render this method of finding longitude easy to the apprehension of those, who, not having made much progress in subjects of this nature, are yet disposed and qualified to attend to them; and it may with propriety be recommended to their perusal.

The longitude of Cambridge is deduced, from observations of two solar eclipses and one transit of mercury over the sun's disc. The first of these eclipses happened Aug. 5, 1766; the other, June 24, 1778; and the transit of Mercury, Nov. 5, 1743. The observations used are those of the beginning and end of the two eclipses by Dr. Maskelyne, the British royal astronomer, at Greenwich; the beginning and end of the former by Dr. Winthrop at Cambridge, and the end of the latter by the Rev. Phillips Payson at Chelsea, 26″ in time eastward from Cambridge, according to a terrestrial measurement, made by President Willard and Mr. Payson; and the observations of the first and second internal and the second external contacts of Mercury, at the said transit, by some eminent French astronomers at Paris; and the second internal and external contacts by Dr. Winthrop at Cambridge. The mean of the results of these calculations, which appear to have been made with great accuracy, gives 4h. 44′ 31″ * for the longitude of Cambridge in time westward from Greenwich.

II. A memoir on the latitude of the University at Cambridge: With observations of the variation and dip of the magnetick needle. By Samuel Williams, F.A.A. Hollis professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy in the university.

This memoir contains the observations and calculations, by which the author determined the latitude of Cambridge. For this purpose meridian altitudes of the sun, six stars near the equator, and the pole-star, were observed in the philosophy chamber in Harvard hall with an astronomical quadrant of a radius, equal to 2½ feet, made by Sisson. The mean of the results from observations of the *stars* is 42° 23′ 28″ north, which, he concludes, is *the true latitude of Harvard hall.*

No mention is made of the firmness or stability of the floor, on which the instrument was placed. It is however of great importance, that the support of the quadrant should be entirely secure from motion, at the time of making observations of this kind.

A few facts, relative to the variation and dip of the magnetick needle at Cambridge, are mentioned at the close of the memoir.

III. A table of the equations to equal altitudes, for the latitude of the University of Cambridge, 42° 23′ 28″ N. with an account of its construction and use. By the Reverend Joseph Willard, President of the University.

The importance of regulating a clock, that is to be used in making astronomical observations, or determining the rate of its motion, is well known to astronomers. In this memoir is the method of accomplishing this purpose by observing equal or corresponding altitudes of the sun, which is generally used by astronomers, who have not an observatory. The reason of applying a correction to the middle point between the times of the forenoon and afternoon observations, in order to obtain the true noon, is clearly shown by a stereographick projection. Also the manner of obtaining the equation by the solution of two spherick triangles is explained. And then Wales' formula for determining this equation is given and exemplified. By this formula the table was constructed. It contains the equations in seconds and thirds for the latitude of 42° 23′ 28″ north, the arguments being the half interval between the times of observation and the sun's longitude. Small equations are also subjoined, by the addition or subtraction of which the equations in the table may be adapted to any northern latitude between 40° 23′ 28″ and 44° 23′ 28″.

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* On the 60th page the difference of meridians between Paris and Greenwich is considered as 9′ 16″ in time. This is the difference according to the Tables of M. De La Lande, in the second edition of his Astronomie, published in 1771. But later observations have ſhown it to be 9′ 20″. The difference therefore being called 9′ 20″ instead of 9′ 16″ the above mean reſult becomes 4h. 44′ 29″. The mean of the three results in the Memoir and that of observations on the solar eclipse of April 3, 1791, is 4h. 44′ 28″, which is now considered as *the longitude of Cambridge.*

IV. Astronomical observations, made in the state of Massachusetts. By Professor Williams.

The observations and deductions contained in this memoir, relate to nine lunar and four solar eclipses, one transit of Venus, and two transits of Mercury. Two of the lunar eclipses, namely, those of November 12, 1761, and March 17, 1764, were observed at Waltham. The rest, he remarks, were all that could be observed in this part of America from Jan. 1, 1770, to Jan. 1, 1784. The observations of four lunar and two solar eclipses, which happened within this period before October 1780, were made at Bradford. To view the solar eclipse of October 27, 1780, which arrested much attention, a station was taken on the east side of Long Island in Penobscot Bay, where it was nearly total. Several gentlemen, belonging to the university, accompanied Professor Williams, whose observations he relates. When viewing the subsequent eclipses, namely three of the moon and two of the sun, he was at Cambridge, and some other gentlemen, connected with the university, were associated with him on these interesting occasions, and in addition to his own he has published their observations.

The transit of Venus over the sun the 3d of June, 1769, was observed at Newburyport; and that of Mercury the 9th of Nov. 1769, at Salem. When a transit of Mercury happened the 12th of Nov. 1782, Professor Williams being at Cambridge, he and two other gentlemen of the university in company with him observed this curious phenomenon. Some deductions from the observations, they made, conclude this memoir, which contains many important facts, ascertained with care and ability.

To be continued.

ART. 2.

Report of the trial of the Hon. Samuel Chase, one of the associate justices of the supreme court of the United States, before the high court of impeachment, composed of the senate of the United States, for charges exhibited against him by the house of representatives, in the name of themselves and of all the people of the United States, for high crimes and misdemeanors, supposed to have been by him committed; with the necessary documents and official papers, from his impeachment to final acquittal. Taken in short hand by Charles Evans, and *the arguments of counsel revised by them from his manuscript.* Baltimore, 1805. S. Butler and J. Keating.

In ancient times, the offices of king and judge were united in the same person; and it is certainly proper, that the father of a nation should be the steward of its justice, to dispense it among the members of his family. But experience proved, that the union of the original branches of government, in the same person, tended to despotism, and that a magistrate, with such prerogatives, was too apt, in the plenitude of his power, to forget their legitimate object. The wisdom of most modern legislators has therefore separated the legislative, the executive, and judicial departments, to the end that their systems may be "governments of laws, and not of men." Of these departments, the most vulnerable is the judiciary, and therefore it ought to be most strongly fortified by publick favour. Any wanton attack on its independence, any thing maliciously contrived to intimidate a judge in the exercise of his office, or to lessen the confidence of the people in his wisdom or integrity, is a crime against the state. This offence assumes a more terrific form, when it is committed by either of the co-ordinate branches of the government, because of the greatness of the oppressor and the extensiveness of the mischief. A firm and an independent judiciary is the greatest security against that spirit of accommodation, which varies according to times and political occasions. Tyranny may exist under any form of government. The voice of experience has proclaimed this truth, and should warn the advocates for the republican system, not to be too confident of its superior excellence. For whatever may be its perfection in the visions of theory, we know that it is liable to be disturbed by the whirlwinds of party rage, and that, in such commotions, the great and the good, who are always the most conspicuous objects of popular envy, are the first victims of popular madness.

No event of a domestick nature has, since the adoption of the federal constitution, excited in the United States a more universal interest, than the impeachment of Judge Chase. It is not for us to arraign the motives of the triumphant majority in the house of representatives, who voted in favour of that measure. But whether the charges against that citizen were well founded, or whether political intolerance, rather than a regard for the pure administration of equal laws, led to that prosecution, will appear from an examination of the volume before us. We would however confide in the wisdom and integrity of the constituted authorities of our country; and we wish to believe, that their conduct always results from patriotick principles, far exalted above any views of private interest or party rage.

The book is well worthy the attention of the law student, as it contains an exhibition of judicial proceedings, and much learning on the law of impeachment, and as it will stand as a precedent for future times. The course of proceedings at this trial was similar to that in cases of impeachment in Great-Britain. Great formality was observed throughout the scene, suited to the dignity of the court, and to the solemnity of the occasion. After the reading of the articles of impeachment, and the answer of the respondent, the managers proceeded upon the whole of the charges, before the latter was permitted to enter on his defence. When the evidence was gone through, and the arguments for and against the prosecution closed, the question was put to each member of the court on each article separately. We shall briefly analyze the articles of impeachment and the respondent's answer. The importance of the subject will justify the attention which we shall pay to its exposition.

I. The first article charges Judge Chase with arbitrary, oppressive, and unjust conduct on the trial of John Fries for high treason, before the circuit court of the United States for the district of Pennsylvania, in 1800: 1. In delivering an opinion in writing on the question of law, on the construction of which the prisoner's defence materially depended, before counsel had been heard in his defence. 2. In restricting the counsel for Fries from recurring to such English authorities, and from citing certain statutes of the United States, which they thought favourable to his defence. And 3. In debarring the prisoner's counsel from addressing the jury on the law, as well as on the fact, which was to determine his innocence or guilt. In consequence of which conduct, Fries was deprived of the right of a fair trial, and was condemned to death, without having been heard by counsel.

II. The second article alleges against the Judge, that at a circuit court, held at Richmond, in 1800, on the arraignment of one James Thompson Callender, indicted for a libel on John Adams, then president of the United States, he overruled the objection of one of the jury, who wished to be excused from serving on the trial, because he had made up his mind as to the publication.

III. For not permitting the evidence of John Taylor, a material witness for Callender, to be given in, because his testimony would not substantiate the truth of the whole of one of the charges in the indictment, although it embraced more than one fact.

IV. For manifesting, during the whole of the said trial, injustice, partiality, and intemperance: 1. In compelling the counsel for the prisoner to reduce to writing all questions, which they meant to propound to Mr. Taylor. 2. In refusing to postpone the trial, on an affidavit of the absence of a material witness in behalf of the accused. 3. In using unusual, rude and contemptuous expressions towards the prisoner's counsel. 4. In repeatedly and vexatiously interrupting them, so that they were obliged to abandon their cause and their client, who was thereupon convicted; and, 5. In manifesting an indecent solicitude for the conviction of the accused.

V. In awarding a capias, instead of a summons, against Callender, whereby his body was arrested, contrary to the law of Virginia, which, according to a law of the United States, should have regulated the process.

VI. In ruling and adjudging Callender to trial, during the term, at which he was presented and indicted, contrary to the law of Virginia.

VII. The seventh article alleges against Judge Chase, that at a circuit court of the United States, for the district of Delaware, in 1800, he refused to discharge the grand jury at their request, though they had found no bills of indictment; that he stooped to the level of an informer, by observing to the said jury, that a seditious temper had been manifested in the state of Delaware, which had been inflamed by the publications in a certain paper, called the "Mirror of the Times and General Advertiser," and that he at the same time recommended to the district attorney to procure a file of the papers, and select from them something for the ground of a prosecution.

VIII. The eighth and last article charges, that at a circuit court of the United States, for the district of Maryland, in 1803, he delivered to the grand jury an intemperate, inflammatory, and political harangue, with intent to excite their fears against the state government, and also that he delivered to them indecent and extrajudicial opinions.

Judge Chase, having been summoned to answer to the foregoing articles of impeachment, appeared on the 2d January, 1805, before the senate of the United States, then constituting the high court of impeachment. The senate assembled in their usual place of meeting, which had been prepared, in an elegant style, for the session of a court of justice. Being informed by Mr. Burr, the president, that the senate were ready to receive any answer, which he had to offer to the articles of impeachment, Judge Chase moved to be allowed until the first day of the next session of congress, to put in his answer, and to prepare himself for trial. This motion was prefaced by a speech of some length, in which he expressed a desire, to prepare an answer to the articles, which should contain a view of the whole merits of his defence. The charges embraced events, which happened in various parts of the union, and at distant periods of time. As the answer must disclose the whole defence, and as the defence must be confined to the matters stated in the answer, much time was requisite for the necessary preparation. He was to defend his name and his honour, and in some sense the honour of the judiciary. The court did not grant the request in its full extent, but, in consequence of this application, the 4th Feb. following was assigned for receiving the answer, and for proceeding on the trial.

On that day, Judge Chase produced the answer, on which he meant to rely for his justification. It contains "a clear, concise, and authentick explanation of his conduct and of his motives, supported by such a statement of his proofs, as may be extensively read, clearly understood, and easily remembered." The language is glowing and nervous, and the arguments urged with the force of a strong and active intellect. If it possesses any one pre-eminent trait, it is the wonderful fulness, with which the respondent replies to every part of the charges, which allege against him, either negligence of decorum, or turpitude of heart, in the exercise of his official duty.

It will be impossible, in an abridgment, to do justice to this masterly specimen of judicial eloquence. But as we have presented our readers with a view of the charge, we shall likewise attempt to draw an outline of the reply.

I. In reply to the first article of impeachment, the respondent admits, that the circuit court was holden before him and Richard Peters, Esq. the district judge, in April, 1800, within and for the district of Pennsylvania. At this term; John Fries was indicted for high treason, and the opinion, which is the subject of the charge, was communicated to the counsel for the prisoner, after he was brought into court, but before the petit jury was impannelled to try him. This was the second trial of Fries for the same offence. At the first trial, the facts were fully proved, and his counsel rested their defence on the question of law. The opinion, which the respondent delivered, was on this question; viz. whether resisting and preventing by armed force the execution of a *particular* law of the United States, be a "levying of war against the United States," according to the true meaning of the constitution. In two solemn decisions, by Judges Paterson and Peters, in the cases of Vigoll and Mitchell, and by Judges Iredell and Peters, in the case of Fries, the prisoner, in 1799, on arguments at great length, and on mature deliberation of the court, this point had been adjudged, and had thereby become a precedent for all courts of equal or inferiour jurisdiction. With the correctness of this opinion, the respondent was, on full consideration, satisfied, and, in his own words, "by the authority of it he should have felt himself bound, even had he regarded the question as doubtful in itself."

The reasons stated for communicating this opinion, in the manner and at the time mentioned, were, that the respondent felt himself bound by the authority of former decisions, and considered it his duty, to prevent an unnecessary consumption of time, which was rendered precious by the pendency of more than one hundred civil actions, many of which had already been subjected to great delay. It was necessary that this opinion should, at some stage of the trial, be made known to the jury, and the respondent was therefore further influenced to make this communication, from the hope of guarding them against any erroneous impression of the law, since it was their right in this, as in all criminal cases, to render a general verdict of acquittal, which could not be set aside, although it should be contrary to law.

The respondent admits, that, at the trial, he expressed the opinions, that English decisions in cases of treason, at common law, against the person of the king, ought not to be read to the jury, on trials for treason under the constitution and statutes of the United States; that English decisions on this subject, prior to the revolution in 1688, ought to have very little influence in our courts; that decisions since that period, shewing what acts have been considered as a constructive levying of war against the king in his legal capacity, were admissible, but not those against his person. Those opinions however were not of binding authority in this country, but claimed respect from their intrinsick excellence, and from the exalted legal estimation of their authors.

The respondent insists, that it is the right and duty of the court, "to decide and direct what evidence, whether by record or by precedents of decisions in courts of justice, is proper to be admitted for the establishment of any matter of law or fact." He insists also, that he can be called in question only for the correctness of his motives, but he admits, that cases may be supposed, where a judge may have delivered "an opinion so palpably erroneous, unjust, and oppressive, as to preclude the possibility of its having proceeded from ignorance or mistake."

II. In reply to the charge contained in the second article, relative to his having over-ruled the objection of one of the jury to serve on the trial, the respondent observes, that the juror wished to be excused, "because he had formed an opinion, that the publication, called "The Prospect before us," from which the words charged in the indictment as libellous, were said to have been extracted, but which publication he had never seen, was, according to the representation of it, which he had received, within the sedition law." The reason, for which a juror should not be permitted to serve on a trial, is, "that he does not stand indifferent between the parties." The juror in the present instance had neither expressed nor formed an opinion as to the facts. As he did not know, whether the contents of the book were really such as had been represented to him; whether they would on trial be proved to be true; whether Callender was really the author of the book; or whether he wrote it with that evil intent, which was alleged in the indictment, he stood indifferent as to the matter in issue in the legal and proper sense.

III. The evidence of John Taylor was rejected on the following ground. The twelfth charge in the indictment contained these words. "He (meaning President Adams) was a professed aristocrat; he proved faithful and serviceable to the British interest." Taken separately, they charge Mr. Adams with no offence, and consequently could not be indictable as libellous: but taken together, they intend, that Mr. Adams, being an enemy to the republican government of his country, had subserved the British interest against the interest of his own country; an offence both moral and legal. The testimony of Col. Taylor was rejected on the ground, that his evidence did not go to the whole matter contained in this article. Each count in the indictment contained twenty independent charges, or sets of words. Though one slander more or less in such a publication as "The Prospect before us," could be of no moment; yet as, on legal principles, a plea of justification must always answer the whole charge, or it is bad on demurrer, and as the same rule is applicable to evidence, when the matter may be given in evidence, without a formal plea; evidence, which went to prove only a part of an entire and indivisible charge, was inadmissible, and therefore the testimony of Col. Taylor was rejected.

IV. Posterity will be astonished, that it was made an article in an impeachment against a judge, that he required the counsel to reduce their interrogatories to writing, in a case of some difficulty, and for a more accurate observation of them. No lawyer could ever doubt the right of a judge to make such an order, if he deemed it necessary. That it should excite murmurs, much more that it should be the ground of a serious charge against the respondent, for misconduct in his official character, betrays in the counsel a childish impatience of restraint, and must forever be recorded, as a monument of the condescension of the illustrious majority in the house of representatives, for the year 1804. If the court is the proper tribunal to decide all questions of evidence, it is certainly the duty of the judges, to use great deliberation, whenever the correct decision of these questions requires the application of exquisite legal principles, and great subtlety of reasoning.

It is one of the specifications in

this article against Judge Chase, that he refused to postpone the trial of Callender. The continuance of a cause does not depend on the arbitrary will of the court, but on fixed principles. Every application for a continuance must come within those rules, or the trial must proceed. The true and only reason for granting a continuance is, that the party accused may have the best opportunity, which the law can afford him, of making his defence. Where the ground of a continuance is the absence of witnesses, it is a settled rule, and made necessary to the expeditious and happy administration of justice, that the application should be supported by an affidavit, that the testimony wanted is " competent and material," and that there is " reasonable expectation of procuring it within the time prescribed." The affidavit of Callender did not state, that he expected to procure, at the next term, such evidence as he wanted, or that he should obtain the attendance of the absent witnesses, who were scattered over the union. The affidavit was clearly defective, and it became the duty of the court to reject the application.

After perusing the trial of Callender, it is apparent from the conduct of his counsel, that they were unwilling to be tied down to an observance of the rules of law. It would have been vastly agreeable to them, and very much for the interest of their client, could the cause have been tried by a mob, instead of being heard before a tribunal, whose judges well knew the rules of law, and had the virtue to accomplish the duties of their official station.

In concluding his defence againſt thoſe charges, contained in the fourth article of impeachment, he declares, that his whole conduct in that trial, was regulated by a ſtrict regard to the principles of law, and by an honeſt deſire to do juſtice between the United States and the party accuſed. He felt a ſincere wiſh, on the one hand, that the traverſer might eſtabliſh his innocence, by thoſe fair and ſufficient means which the law allows; and a determination on the other, that he ſhould not, by ſubterfuges and frivolous pretences, ſport with the juſtice of the country, and evade that puniſhment of which, if guilty, he was ſo proper an object. Theſe intentions, he is confident, were legal and laudable; and if, in any part of his conduct, he ſwerved from this line, it was an error of his judgment and not of his heart.

V. In replying to the fifth article of the impeachment, the respondent shews, that the managers, who fabricated the article, were guilty of a material oversight in citing the law of Virginia, on which it is founded. The charge is, for awarding an erroneous process against Callender. But by the statute, it is left in the discretion of the court to award *the proper process*, provided it will bring the offender to answer to the presentment. The Judge then proves incontrovertibly, that in issuing a capias, his conduct was perfectly correct.

VI. The sixth article charges the respondent with an intent to oppress Callender, in adjudging him to trial, during the term at which he was presented and indicted. But the respondent denies, that the law of Virginia, to which this article refers, warrants the inference drawn from it; " because it speaks of presentments, and not of indictments, which are very different things; and is, as he is informed, confirmed, by practice and construction in the state of Virginia, to cases of small offences, which are to be tried by the court itself upon the presentment, without an indictment, or the intervention of a jury."

In passing a judgment on the character of the majority in the house of representatives, who voted in favour of the impeachment, posterity will inquire, wherefore Judge Chase was selected, as the sole object of this impeachment. He was but one of the judges, who constituted the courts, in which the facts took place. In the opinions expressed, and in the judgments rendered, the associates of Judge Chase concurred in sentiment. The turpitude, if any, attached to both. Why were actions regarded in one as venial, while they were made the subject of a criminal charge against the other? Was it because Judge Chase would be a more splendid victim on the altar of political intolerance? Or was it to sooth the wounded feelings of the principal prosecutor? In the eye of impartial minds, remote from the scene of action, and free from those impediments, which obscure the clearness of its vision, this selection remains a record of partiality.

VII. It is sufficient to shew the futility of the charges, contained in the seventh article, to observe, that they do in substance amount to this; "that the respondent refused to discharge a grand jury on their request, which is every day's practice, and which he was bound to do, if he believed that the due administration of justice required their longer attendance; that he directed the attention of the grand jury to an offence against a statute of the United States, which he had been informed was committed in the district; and that he desired the district attorney to aid the grand jury, in their inquiries concerning the existence and nature of this offence. By these three acts, each of which it was his duty to perform, he is alleged, "to have degraded his high judicial functions, and tended to impair the publick confidence in, and respect for, the tribunals of justice, so essential to the general welfare."

VIII. In replying to the eighth article, the respondent avows the political opinions, which he is charged with uttering. He then adds:

> It has been the practice in this country, ever ſince the beginning of the revolution, which ſeparated us from Great Britain, for the judges to expreſs from the bench, by way of charge to the grand jury, and to enforce to the utmoſt of their ability, ſuch political opinions, as they thought correct and uſeful. There have been inſtances in which the legiſlative bodies of this country, have recommended this practice of the judges; and it was adopted by the judges of the ſupreme court of the United States, as ſoon as the preſent judicial ſyſtem was eſtabliſhed. If the legiſlature of the United States conſidered this practice as miſchievous, dangerous, or liable to abuſe, they might have forbidden it by law; to the penalties of which, ſuch judges as might afterwards tranſgreſs it, would be juſtly ſubjected. By not forbidding it, the legiſlature has given to it an implied ſanction; and for that legiſlature to puniſh it now by way of impeachment, would be to convert into a crime, by an ex poſt facto proceeding, an act which when it was done and at all times before, they had themſelves virtually declared to be innocent. Such conduct would be utterly ſubverſive of the fundamental principles on which free government reſts; and would form a precedent for the moſt ſanguinary and arbitrary perſecutions, under the forms of law.

He then with brevity examines the political opinions, which were incorporated in his address to the grand jury, and in a satisfactory manner defends them.

The close of the respondent's plea is inexpressibly solemn and dignified. We insert it as a specimen of genuine eloquence.

This reſpondent has now laid before this honourable court, as well as the time allowed him would permit, all the circumſtances of this caſe. With an humble truſt in Providence and a conſciouſneſs that he hath diſcharged all his official duties with juſtice and impartiality, to the beſt of his knowledge and abilities; and that intentionally he hath committed no crime or miſdemeanour, or any violation of the conſtitution or laws of his country—Confiding in the impartiality, independence, and integrity of his judges, and that they will patiently hear and conſcientiouſly determine this caſe, without being influenced by the ſpirit of party, by popular prejudice, or political motives, he cheerfully ſubmits himſelf to their deciſion.

If it ſhall appear to this honourable court from the evidence produced, that he hath acted in his *judicial* character with wilful injuſtice or partiality, he doth not wiſh any favour, but expects that the whole extent of the puniſhment permitted in the conſtitution will be inflicted upon him.

If any part of his *official* conduct ſhall appear to this honourable court, *ſtricti juris*, to have been illegal, or to have proceeded from *ignorance* or *error* in judgment; or if any part of his conduct ſhall appear, although illegal, to have been irregular or improper, but not to have flowed from a depravity of heart, or any unworthy motives, he feels confident that this court will make allowance for the imperfections and frailties incident to man. He is ſatisfied that every member of this tribunal will obſerve the principles of humanity and juſtice, will preſume him innocent, until his guilt ſhall be eſtabliſhed by legal and credible witneſſes; and will be governed in his deciſion, by the moral and chriſtian rule, of rendering that juſtice to this reſpondent, which he would wiſh to receive.

This reſpondent now ſtands not merely before an earthly tribunal, but alſo before that awful Being, whoſe preſence fills all ſpace, and whoſe all ſeeing eye more eſpecially ſurveys the temples of juſtice and religion. In a little time, his accuſers, his judges, and himſelf muſt appear at the Bar of Omnipotence, where the ſecrets of all hearts ſhall be diſcloſed, and every human being ſhall anſwer for his deeds done in the body, and ſhall be compelled to give evidence againſt himſelf in the preſence of aſſembled univerſe. To his Omniſcient Judge, at that awful hour, he now appeals for the rectitude and purity of his conduct, as to all the matters of which he is this day accuſed.

He hath now only to adjure each member of this honourable court, by the living GOD, and in his holy name, to render impartial juſtice to him, according to the conſtitution and laws of the United States. He makes this ſolemn demand of each member, by all his hopes of happineſs in the world to come, which he will have voluntarily renounced by the oath he has taken; if he ſhall wilfully do this reſpondent injuſtice, or diſregard the conſtitution or laws of the United States, which he has ſolemnly ſworn to make the rule and ſtandard of his judgment and deciſion.

The object of the review of a book is to communicate to the publick information of its contents, and to pourtray its excellencies and defects. Milton observes, "that it is of greatest concernment in the church and commonwealth, to have a vigilant eye how books demeane themselves, as well as men." From regard to publick considerations, we always look on a new publication with jealousy, well assured, that if it is written for immortality, no wound, which it can receive from the severity of criticism, will be fatal to its existence. But if books inculcate evil and pernicious principles, either in taste or morals, "since they doe contain a potencie of life in them to be as active as that soule whose progeny they are," they must, at the tribunal of criticism, be duly informed against, and prosecuted to conviction and punishment, as offenders against the peace and dignity of the commonwealth.

This trial, the course of the proceedings, the examination of the witnesses, and the arguments for and against the prosecution, are worthy the attention of all the citizens, but more particularly of the law student. To him we recommend it, as an authoritative exhibition of correctness in judicial proceedings, displaying the application of principles to practice. But the book is printed on poor paper, and in a miserable style of execution. Frequent and scandalous errours occur in the orthography. It has all the marks of hurry, which no necessity will palliate, and for which the editors, considering the dignity of the subject, and the extensive patronage, which they had obtained, are inexcusable. We have seen the first volume of Smith's edition of the trial, which is executed, in point of typographical neatness, with much greater care, and in a superiour style. In Evans's report, the arguments of the counsel for the respondent, and in Smith's edition, the arguments of the managers were revised and corrected by them prior to their publication. So far as we able to judge, by comparing the speeches of the respective orators in the two editions, it is generally true, that in both they have been reported with fidelity. Where they have been revised and corrected by the orators, many of them are worthy of the occasion, and do honour to the taste and eloquence of our country. To those, who are conversant in courts of justice, it is well known, that to speak eloquently on important subjects, without deep premeditation, requires the highest efforts of the human intellect. The report of a speech is usually, though not necessarily, an abridgment of it. The reporter is solicitous to catch the sentiment. He is seldom able to exhibit the beauties of style and manner. He can preserve the bones and sinews. The anatomy may be perfect, but the delicate shades of complexion, and the graces of form and gesture are gone.

The managers on the part of the house of representatives, were, Messrs. John Randolph, Rodney, Nicholson, Early, Boyle, and G. W. Campbell. The counsel for the respondent were, Messrs. Harper, Martin, Hopkinson, Key, and C. Lee.

The replication to the answer of the respondent, filed by the managers, on behalf of the house of representatives, was framed from the form of the replication, which was filed in the celebrated case of Warren Hastings.

Mr. Randolph opened the cause on the part of the house of representatives in a speech, in which he took a general survey of the charges. We naturally expected, that Mr. R. would, in this speech, have exerted all his talents, to give the most clear and favourable appearance to the cause, which he supported. We expected, that after a brief and clear exhibition of the charges, he would have followed the respondent's plea, and displayed, what is styled in the replication, "its evasive insinuations," and "its misrepresentation of facts:" and, since it was "utterly false and untrue," that he would have stript it of "its gloss and colouring." Much time having elapsed, since the subject had pressed on his attention, it would, we presume, have been easy for him; and, considering the novelty of the occasion, it would have been useful, briefly to have exposed the law of impeachment. But his speech is extremely barren of matter, and defective in argument. Even in its revised form, it has none of those qualities, which constitute eloquence. It is not recommended to us by the poor merit of splendid declamation, or of ingenious sophistry. In fact, the Sampson seems to rise up among the Philistines, shorn of his locks. The following passage will give an idea of his manner. It is animated, but the sentiment is extremely incorrect and paradoxical. Its tendency is to extend impunity to criminals, by dissolving their counsel from the observance of the salutary maxims of the law in the conduct of their trials.

> We are prepared to prove, what the respondent has in part admitted, that he "restricted the counsel of Fries from citing such English authorities as they believed apposite, and certain statutes of the United States, which they deemed material to their defence;" that the prisoner was debarred by him from his constitutional privilege of addressing the jury, through his counsel, on the law, as well as the fact, involved in the verdict which they were required to give—and that he attempted to wrest from the jury their undeniable right to hear argument, and, consequently, to determine upon the question of law, which in a criminal case it was their sole and unquestionable province to decide. These last charges (except so far as relates to the laws of the United States) are impliedly admitted by the respondent. He confesses, that he would not permit the prisoner's counsel to cite certain cases, "because they could not inform but might deceive and mislead the jury." Mr. President, it is the noblest trait in this inestimable trial, that in criminal prosecutions, where the verdict is general, the jury are the sole judges, and, where they acquit the prisoner, the judges, without appeal, both of law and fact. And what is the declaration of the respondent but an admission, that he wished to take from the jury their indisputable privilege to hear argument and determine upon the law, and to usurp to himself that power, which belonged to them, and to them only? It is one of the most glorious attributes of jury trial, that in criminal cases (particularly such as are capital) the prisoner's counsel may (and they often do) attempt "to deceive and mislead the jury." It is essential to the fairness of the trial, that it should be conducted with perfect freedom. It is congenial to the generous spirit of our institutions to lean to the side of an unhappy fellow creature, put in jeopardy, of limb, or life, or liberty. The free principles of our governments, individual and federal, teach us to make every humane allowance in his favour, to grant him with a liberality, unknown to the narrow and tyrannous maxims of most nations, every indulgence not inconsistent with the due administration of justice. Hence a greater latitude is allowed to the accused, than is permitted to the prosecutor. The jury, upon whose verdict the event is staked, are presumed to be men capable of understanding what they are called upon to decide, and the attorney for the state, a gentleman learned in his profession, capable of detecting and exposing the attempts of the opposite counsel to mislead and deceive. There is moreover the court, to which, in cases of difficulty, recourse might be had. But what indeed is the difficulty arising from the law in criminal cases, for the most part? What is to hinder an honest jury from deciding, especially after the aid of an able discussion, whether such an act was a killing with malice prepense, or such other overt acts set forth in an indictment, constituted a levying war against the United States—and to what purpose has treason been defined by the constitution itself, if overbearing, arbitrary judges are permitted to establish among us the odious and dangerous doctrine of constructive treason? The acts of Congress which had been referred to on the former trial, but which the respondent said he would not suffer to be cited again, tended to shew that the offence committed by Fries did not amount to treason. That it was a misdemeanor, only, already provided for by law and punishable with fine and imprisonment. The respondent indeed denies this part of the charge, but he justifies it even (as he says) if it be proved upon him. And are the laws of our own country (as well as foreign authorities) not to be suffered to be read in our courts, in justification of a man whose life is put in jeopardy!

The examination of the witnesses followed. In this interesting part of the work, we observe great attention paid to those rules of evidence, and maxims of conduct, which are justified by the authority of judicial tribunals. In the trial of Warren Hastings, the managers on the part of the Commons contended, with persevering obstinacy, that they ought not to be bound by the rules of legal proceeding, which are observed in other cases, and before inferiour tribunals. The Commons, said Mr. Burke, disclaim all knowledge of pleading as a science. They are not clerks, but plain, simple laymen. If they speak the language of reason and plain sense, they are not bound to plead technically, or to speak according to the terms of science. By the constitution, the Lords are not considered as learned in the law, but merely as Barons, Swordsmen, and Cavaliers, with whom are mixed the Bishops, and it would be proper for them therefore to judge according to the principles of natural justice, and not according to certain narrow rules laid down in other courts. But in the whole course of that trial, their Lordships acted on quite different principles, and demonstrated by their decisions, that there was not, in their opinion, one rule of evidence, which did not apply to the House of Lords, as much as to any inferiour court in the kingdom. Mr. Burke denied, that there was any such thing as rules of evidence, and contended that all evidence must vary in its matter and in its manner, as the nature of each case varied. But his idea was extremely incorrect : for the rules of evidence result from the nature of things, and, like the laws of nature, are immutable. By these rules, it is not intended, that the same evidence will prove all cases : they respect rather the quality and degree of proof necessary to substantiate a fact. That oral testimony, for instance, is inadmissible to prove the contents of a deed, or written instrument, which are in existence ; that the copy of an instrument shall not be used, where the original can be produced ; and that a witness shall not be permitted to testify, unless under the solemnities of an oath ; are rules of evidence, which certainly are founded in nature, and can never vary with the varieties of legal occasions, or be dispensed with by any tribunal.

Mr. Early's speech follows the examination of the witnesses. It commences with the following observation, which we find, in its revised state, in Smith's edition.— "There is no *attitude*, in which the government of this nation can be viewed, more completely demonstrative of the *efficacy* of its principles, than that, in which it is now placed." Whether Mr. E. thought that, at that time, the government was standing, or walking, or sitting, or sleeping, we know not ; and how the *attitude* of a government should demonstrate its *principles*, is a little mysterious. It appears to us as difficult to comprehend, as it would be to ascertain, from a man's gait, whether he were a Roundhead or a Cavalier. Sallust remarks a peculiarity in Cataline's gait : "citus modò, modò tardus incessus" : sometimes walking rapidly, then suddenly stopping and looking, as though he feared that he was pursued. This indicated a mind, haunted with the images of former crimes, and loaded with the consciousness of guilt. But the use of this rhetorical figure in the present instance is the first time that we have seen it applied to a body politick ; and we leave it with this one observation, that its use has not yet been established by standard authority. Mr. E.'s speech abounds with hyperbolical expression and superlative epithet, which, like profane and idle oaths and imprecations in common discourse, indicate a poverty of invention as well as a corrupt taste. His view of the subject is very general. Something like an argument is attempted on the first article, but his manner throughout is loose and declamatory.

We are better pleased with Mr. Campbell's speech, as it appears revised in Smith's edition. His style is plain and impressive, without an attempt at any great degree of elevation. He confines himself to an investigation of the conduct of the respondent at the trials of Fries and of Callender. His view is general, and executed with considerable ability. It is vastly superiour to the vapid performance of Mr. Early. Even the freedom, with which he treats the respondent, and the resentment, which he expresses at his conduct, are excusable, because they are the prerogative of animated debate.

This volume next presents us with the speeches of Messrs. Hopkinson, Key, Lee, Martin, and Harper. They are models of forensick eloquence. We have devoted so much attention to the answer of the respondent, that we must be content to give our opinion of the character of the arguments for and against the prosecution, without minutely analysing them, and without the insertion of copious extracts.

The defence was commenced by Mr. Hopkinson, the introduction to whose speech is truly eloquent and impressive. It is confined to a defence of the respondent on the first article. The language is dignified, and the whole oration is not unworthy, for its excellent substance and elegant form, to be compared with some of the celebrated productions of the Roman bar.

Mr. Key's speech is confined to the second, third, and fourth articles of impeachment, and is, to use the language of Mr. Lee, in the style and manner of an "elegant advocate."

Mr. Lee's speech displays much judicial skill, united to an ease and simplicity of manner, which are highly pleasing.

Mr. Martin confines his particular attention to the fifth and sixth, after a survey of the preceding articles of impeachment. He discusses with great ability the relative duties of judges and counsel, and the respective rights of judges and jurors. He incontestibly proves, on the authority both of precedent and reason, that the right of the court to decide the law, is the same in criminal as in civil cases. He demonstrates, that the process, issued by the respondent in the case of Callender, was correct. "Two highly respectable legal characters in Virginia, who successively held the office of attorney general (Col. James and Gen. Brooke) were applied to by one of their deputies, and declared themselves incapable to decide, what ought to be the practice; or in other words, to decide in what cases a summons ought to be used, and in what cases a capias was the proper process." This point, which had puzzled the Virginia lawyers, Mr. Martin, by his luminous investigation, has, we presume, settled; for which service the bar of that state ought to be very grateful. The style and manner of Mr. Hopkinson is very dissimilar to those of Mr. Martin. The former resembles a majestic stream, flowing with silent grandeur down its lofty banks. The latter is a torrent, which bears down all before it. Mr. Martin's conclusion is abrupt, and unequal to the preceding parts of his oration. After a minute and somewhat dry discussion of a point of legal practice, extracted from statute provisions, the orator ought gradually to have descended from the height of legal abstraction, and relieved the mind of his auditors by a conclusion of a milder and more dignified form.

Judge Chase's defence was concluded by Mr. Harper. His speech has less of a professional dress, than either of those, which were delivered by his associates. It is calculated for an assembly, which, like the senate, was composed of eminent characters from the various professions in society. The distinguishing trait of this speech is the candour of the orator. He boldly meets the facts in the case, as they had been related most to the disadvantage of his client, and satisfactorily shews, where the witnesses must have been mistaken, and where the acts, charged as criminal in the respondent, were judicially correct. Candour is the legitimate offspring of a magnanimous and liberal spirit. So much does it gain on the hearts of men, that its form is often artfully assumed even for dishonest purposes. Orators at the bar are generally unwilling to yield any thing to their antagonists. But who, that has any experience, will not confess, that there is in almost every cause good and evil. It is a departure from moral purity, to attempt to give to wrong the appearance of right. When an orator has defended his client, where his conduct admits defence; when he has with warmth of heart and eloquence of language, urged in his behalf, whatever is consistent with good logick and truth, he has honourably discharged his duty, and ought then to submit to the decisions of those, who are invested with the authority to decide.

In assigning to contradictory testimony the grades of credit, to which its several parts are entitled, in elucidating dark passages, and in extracting from the informal mass the forms and proportion of truth, are among the most difficult tasks of forensick orators. There was, in this case, much occasion for legal discrimination, and of this talent Mr. Harper appears to be eminently possessed. His language is uniformly dignified, and strictly within the limits of decent and manly expostulation. He takes a general view of the whole subject of impeachment, but more particularly confines his attention to the transactions at New Castle in Delaware, and to the eighth charge.

Whoever reads this case must be sensible, that the managers had to contend with complicated embarrassments. The counsel for the respondent were from among the most eminent professional characters in the United States. The facts contained in the articles could not, with all the authority of the accusing power, and with all the zeal and ability of the managers, be shewn to be subject of impeachment. Strip them of their technical language, reduce them to the "simple elements of their own merit," and what will remain against the respondent, which indicates a crime? Feeble as was the accusation, it derived no strength from the testimony, after a most thorough investigation of which, the articles of impeachment seemed to vanish away, like a vision of the night, fading from the memory, and scarcely leaving a trace of its brief and airy existence.

Mr. Nicholson first replies on the part of the prosecution. His speech, as reported in this volume, contains nothing subtle or eloquent. It is brief. He first attempts to prove, that to sustain an impeachment, it is not necessary, that the offence should be an indictable one, which was strenuously contended by the counsel for the respondent. The rest of his speech is confined to an examination of the several specifications under the first article of impeachment.

Mr. Rodney's speech is superior, both in substance and manner, to either of the speeches, which were made on the part of the prosecution. We wish to introduce the orators to the knowledge of our readers, and we select the following passage from Mr, Rodney's speech, as a specimen of his style and manner.

> I will proceed to make a few remarks on the last article. The impropriety of the conduct of the judge, in this case, must have struck the mind of every member of the court. I believe all of them disapprove of political charges. It certainly has been the practice of the judges in the United States to deliver political charges to grand juries, and to level their artillery upon the measures of the government. But is that to justify a judge in becoming a political preacher? It is indubitably of the utmost importance that courts of justice should be kept pure. Party spirit should never be suffered to enter their walls. Provided laws are administered with justice and impartiality to every person, we may always look up to courts of justice for protection. So long as the courts and juries remain pure and uncorrupted, we may be confident of safety, if innocent; but when judges undertake to erect those sacred places into political hustings, they must lose their respect in the eyes of the people, and business cannot be confided in them with confidence. Will not the juries adopt political prejudices and carry them home with them, and decide more from political parties than justice? Justice should be administered between man and man without any distinction, and this conduct of the respondent goes to prevent it. Although books have been produced, and a number of high authorities cited, to justify the delivery of political charges, I must be allowed to enter my protest against them; but no instance has been cited where a judge has, like the respondent, exclaimed against the acts of the government. When we look at the charge, which has been offered in evidence by him, we find him censuring one of the most important acts of the government. I allude to the repeal of the judiciary system; in this he censured every branch of the government. I am not about to dispute the right of Judge Chase in his individual capacity to exercise his talents to prevent any measure from being adopted. But that right cannot apply to the case before the court. He cannot be justified in delivering from the bench denunciations against both the measures of the United States and the state in which he held the court. Nor did he stop there. He went on to declaim against citizens of the state, for being in favour of measures which he deemed improper. Every member of this court must know that state jealousies still exist, and it ought to be the anxious care of every man, to say or do nothing calculated to excite jealousies between the United States and any individual state. Was it a part of the duty of the judge, to preach up against the acts of the legislature of Maryland? Assuredly not. He had no right to thunder anathemas against the measures of any state.

Either the reporter has been very unjust, or Mr. Randolph is most lamentably deficient in legal science and talents for the forum. Judging from his appearance at this trial, we are of opinion, that he is well calculated to address a mob, or even to drive a majority in a deliberative assembly, who are devoted to his will. His speech, which concludes the arguments in behalf of the prosecution, is a declamatory harangue, in which the pre-eminent traits are, his lofty esteem of himself, and his unbounded hatred of the respondent. In his manner Mr. R. is extremely desultory. For this defect he apologizes, by observing, that he had unfortunately lost his notes. We confess our astonishment at his apparent ignorance of a prosecution, which had been "instituted at his instigation," of articles, which "came solely from his pen," and "the meaning of every word of which," he confesses, "that he felt bound to explain."

On the 1st day of March, 1805, after a full and patient investigation, Judge Chase was, by the decision of the high court of impeachment, acquitted on the articles exhibited against him by the house of representatives. Whether it is our province to pass a sentence, or even to hint an opinion, on the innocence or guilt of the accused, is problematical. He was acquitted by his judges, and that most honourably. He appears to possess a mind ardent, lofty, and overbearing. But who may more rightfully assume an imperial voice and gesture, than the judges and authoritative expounders of the law? In the administration of justice, a judge must be deaf to pity and friendship. He may not listen to the claims of blood or affection, and therefore to superficial observers he may at times betray an unfeeling temper. In the course of his official duties, he must lay the heavy hand of justice on guilt, which sometimes excites pity even by its weakness. But never is the duty of a judge more difficult or ungrateful, than either when he is compelled to act against popular passion and prejudice, or in seasons of political fermentation. Freedom from blame at such times is more than usually falls to the lot of mortals: since he is liable to err even from an excessive desire to avoid mistake. While therefore we humbly declare, that Judge Chase's conduct was, in every material act, free from crime; in some respects it was not free from fault. We allude to the opinion which he gave at the trial of Fries, which was, in respect of the time and manner of it, a novelty in judicial proceedings. Mr. Harper confesses that it was an errour. The honourable Judge was himself, solicitous to expiate his mistake with a generous penitence, but in a manner worthy of his dignified station. Let not the vain and presumptuous man, who is inconscious of his own limited powers, exult over this concession. Let not the personal and political enemies of Judge Chase presume, from this concession, to rank us among his accusers. But let them unite with us, if they have the grace so to do, in deploring the imperfections, which are incident even to great and illustrious minds; and let them weep, if they have the feeling to weep, over the frailties of the human character.

It is impossible to read this trial without mingled emotions. A judge of the supreme judicature of the nation, venerable for his years, for his integrity, and for his publick services, arraigned before the most august tribunal of his country, and charged with the commission of high crimes and misdemeanors, is a sublime spectacle, on which illustrious villany may look with fearful anticipation. It is honourable to the justice of a country, that it should contain a tribunal, for bringing to punishment criminals of the highest order. But let it be recollected, that where great power is reposed, it is expected that it will be held with a degree of caution, equal to the magnitude of the effect, which its exercise is calculated to produce. When therefore we see an eminent citizen impeached for "high crimes and misdemeanors," and on solemn trial it appears, that there existed against him no evidence of oppression, no suspicion of corrupt or wilful misconduct in office, it requires all our charity, and all our respect for constituted authority, to believe, that the accusation resulted from a sacred regard to the publick good. Justice impartial, and freely administered to men of all degrees and of all parties, is the sure basis of national prosperity. The body politick derives health and vigour from the salutary streams of justice, but if the fountain once becomes impure, a sickly paleness will gradually overspread the surface of the system, indicating its rapid dissolution. When the measure of justice in a nation is to be ascertained by passion, prejudice, or party spirit, or by any other rule than the eternal principles of right and wrong, and when the solemn forms of justice are to be prostituted to such nefarious purpose, that nation is rapidly following the fate of those corrupt systems of antiquity, whose ruins still warn nations and rulers, that they should be just.

ART. 3.

War in disguise; or, the frauds of the neutral flags. London, printed: New-York, re-printed by Hopkins & Seymour, for I. Riley & Co, &c. &c. Jan. 1806. *pp.* 215.

THE writer of this pamphlet introduces his subject with some remarks on the importance of the British navy, which few persons in America, and none in England, will be inclined to controvert. Bonaparte's naval efforts, he says, have been great and unremitted, and far more formidable than could have been expected, considering the destruction of French commerce. "The loss of the British superiority at sea," he adds, "would remove from before the ambition of France almost every obstacle, by which its march to universal empire could be impeded." The truth of this position also seems to be clear.

To shew the possibility that G. Britain may finally lose, and France acquire the sovereignty of the seas, he proposes, as the chief design of this pamphlet, to prove, "that by the encroachments and frauds of the neutral flags France has found a nursery and a refuge for her navy, and that of her Dutch and Spanish allies, as well as secret conduits for those resources, by which she has nourished and augmented it."

Here again, no doubt will exist, that neutral commerce is of great and indispensable advantage to France and her allies, without which they could scarcely draw a single dollar from their colonies. This position of things furnishes a very strong inducement to Great-Britain to disturb the commerce of neutrals with her enemies' colonies, and to trump up new and specious principles to vindicate her aggressions. The principles of this pamphlet writer ought therefore to be examined with some suspicion in America, but they ought to be carefully examined.

The pamphlet proceeds to state the singular fact, that, destitute of all active commerce, as France certainly is, and of all means of affording naval protection to her commerce, nevertheless her resources appear to be unimpaired in consequence. This, it is truly said, is a different result from what ever happened in all former wars. Only the *partial* stoppage of the French commerce by the superiority of the British fleets used to produce the last extremity of distress to the people and government of France; so that, strong as the French ever were on land, "the house of Bourbon was vanquished by the masters of the sea."

He accounts for this strange circumstance by ascribing its cause to the use of the neutral flags. If he supposes, that the great mass of the cargoes of the colonial produce, freighted on board American vessels is not, *bona fide*, the property of Americans, we believe he is grossly mistaken. American capital is adequate to the purchase of these products, and this is what Englishmen cannot easily be made to believe. Nevertheless the purchase of the crops of Martinique and Guadaloupe by American merchants obviously relieves the French planters from the pressure of the war. How is their prosperity retarded or obstructed, if they can have a full price for their crops, the superiority of the British navy notwithstanding? It is true, not a French merchant flag is seen on the ocean. But as the French planter owns no ships, and is interested directly only in the sale of his rum, coffee, cotton, sugar, &c. if the neutral will buy these articles and pay for them at a good price, it is plain the war does not reach the colony to cramp its growth, or to obstruct its supplies, which are abundantly furnished by neutrals.

This state of things, which is verified by the most ample experience, produces no little disappointment and vexation to the belligerent. Hence, as the British arms and our commercial gains mutually obstruct each other, it is extremely natural, that angry invectives and recriminations should ensue between the American and British nations. The usual progress of popular passions, when so excited, is to insult, retaliation, and war. This is a course, which it is incredible the government of either of the two countries should wish to pursue.

Supposing that there is not on either side a disposition to fight, there ought to be a mutual willingness to argue.

The pamphlet writer proceeds to examine, 1st, the origin, nature, and extent of what he calls the evils and abuses of neutral flags. 2d, the remedy and right of applying it. 3d, the prudence of that resort.

Under the first head, "the origin, nature, and extent of the evil," he premises, "that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities, by trading with his colonies in time of war, in a way that was prohibited in time of peace." Here we find the marrow of the great question, at present depending between the belligerent and neutral nations.

To support the negative, i. e. that a neutral has no right in time of war to any other trade with an enemy's colonies, than what is permitted in time of peace, he quotes at length the opinion of Sir William Scott, in the case of the Emanuel, Nov. 1799. This, he asserts, was the doctrine of the war of 1756. One of the leading points decided against the Dutch in that war was, we believe, that French colonial property on board Dutch vessels was liable to condemnation; in other words that free ships did not make free goods. That they do, is indeed pretended by the French, and we believe only by the French, or those under their influence; but there is demonstrably no ground for such a doctrine, either as they pretend to derive it from the law of nations, or from a just regard to the commercial advantage of neutrals. By establishing such a doctrine the French, while inferior at sea, would gain much, but the neutral American would certainly be a loser.

If the principle, that "free ships make free goods," had been established, as was vainly attempted, twenty-five years ago, neutrals would have been deprived of immense pecuniary advantages, which they have hitherto enjoyed, and would, in exchange, have derived from the innovation no benefit, to which they are not fully entitled by the acknowledged law of nations. By the operation of the laws of maritime war, the commerce of belligerents is subject to heavy losses and expenses, from which neutrals are exempt. This gives to the latter an advantage over the former, equal, at the least, to the full amount of those losses and expenses; or it drives the belligerent merchant from the sea, and thus leaves to the neutral a virtual monopoly of the whole commerce, which both had carried on. It in effect, therefore, enables the neutral to trade with the belligerent, without the possibility of the latter being an equal competitor; of course *it enables the neutral to sell unusually dear, and buy unusually cheap.* He sells dear in the country of the belligerent, because a part of the supply is cut off, and a part carried at an extremely dear rate. He buys the products of the belligerent cheap, because a part of the usual buyers withdraw from the market, and others cannot afford the accustomed price. Thus the insecurity and increased expense of the belligerent's own trade, augment the profits of the neutral, whose trade is safe. But if free ships made the goods free, *all the commerce would be equally safe*, and the neutral would have no new reward, but simple freight (always the lowest of mercantile wages) to compensate him for the various inconveniences, to which the war exposes him; that is, he would be confined to the earnings of a mere porter, instead of superadding the profits of a merchant, and the income of a capitalist.

We have great doubts, however, whether the decisions of 1756 afford any very clear authority, either for the present British principles, or for the claims of neutral nations. The state of things now in existence is totally unlike any thing that ever was in 1756, or in any war before 1793. Laws, to be of any use or authority, must be founded on their adaptation to existing circumstances. The controversy is a new one, because there never was, till 1793, any room for agitating it. Never, till that time, were France and her allies stripped of all active commerce, and literally banished from the ocean. Of course, never till then were they obliged to use the aid of neutrals, or forego entirely the benefit of their colonial commerce. It is our duty to state the fact. It is the duty of others, more adequate to the task, to draw from it the proper inferences.

The author of the pamphlet proceeds through nearly one hundred pages, to enlarge upon the principle of the war of 1756, and to explain and vindicate the conduct of the British government, and the decisions of the admiralty courts. We have not room to exhibit an abstract of the argument, which nevertheless we recommend to our American statesmen to peruse and confute. We have already hinted at a reason for our forbearing to do this. We believe the ultimate settlement of the controversy will depend more on the actual situation of the parties at the present day, than upon the course of their former conduct and opinions, when their situation was exceedingly dissimilar.

The author supposes fraud on the part of neutrals, in covering enemy's property, to a much greater extent than American merchants will believe is the fact.[*] Yet he undertakes, p. 102, to say, that his conclusion does not depend on the fact assumed. For

> "If the hostile colonies are supplied with all necessary imports, and their produce finds its way to market, the enemy is effectually relieved from the chief pressure of the war, even though both branches of the trade should pass into foreign hands, in reality as well as in form." He adds, that "the produce of the Weſt-Indies sells cheaper at present, clear of duties, in the ports of our enemies than in our own."—P. 105.

If this be true, we cannot see why the French colonies should not prosper beyond those of England. He tells us this is the fact; and repeats, as well founded, the boast of Bonaparte,

> "That Guadaloupe and Martinique are flourishing so much beyond all former experience, that since 1789 they have doubled their population."

····

That colonies should thrive in produce and wealth, because the mother country is driven from the sea, and abandons them to shift as they can without naval protection, and that the English colonies should droop and decline, in consequence of the empire of the British navy on every sea, is certainly a strange assertion. The author strenuously insists, that this is the fact. English vessels are exposed to the peril of capture, and to war freights and premiums, and of course English West India produce goes dearer to market than the products of the enemy's colonies in neutral vessels. In this way, he says, the commerce of England, in West India products, is every where obstructed, and is nearly lost. But he insists, that the tendency of this system, to augment and man the marine of France, and to cramp and discourage that of G. Britain, is a still more disheartening and urgent consideration.

Having in detail treated of the origin, extent, and nature of the evil, he proceeds, page 137, to consider "*the remedy, and the right of applying it.*"[*]

"If," he continues, "neutrals have no right, but through our concession, to carry on the colonial trade of our enemies, we may, *after a reasonable notice*, withdraw that ruinous indulgence." One of the chief topicks of complaint in America has been the condemnation of our vessels, without any such *notice* of their being liable to condemnation. Indeed, if Great-Britain could make out a right to seize them, it appears, that it has been exercised with an unwarrantable precipitancy and unnecessary harshness. As booty, the prizes go to the captors; and even if the government of England participated in the proceeds, it cannot be supposed to be of magnitude enough to operate as a motive for the captures.

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[*] There is probably some misrepresentation, and certainly some exaggeration of the conduct of neutrals, in this part of the pamphlet. There is also an evident want of correct information concerning the consumption of sugar and coffee in the United States. These errors seem to be less excusable, because accurate knowledge was easy to be procured, and it is admitted, by the writer himself, that the force of his main argument does not depend on their truth.

"Nothing," says the author, "can be more advantageous to England, than the suppression of the fraudulent commerce of neutrals. But if it requires a breach of justice, let us inflexibly abstain." These are honourable sentiments, whether the author really feels them, or thinks fit, in order to give force to his reasoning, to affect them.

He professes to think, there is no doubt of the British *right* to stop this trade.

"Neutral ships (he observes) when taken in a *direct* voyage to or from the hostile countries and their colonies, or in a trade between the latter and any other neutral country, but their own, have been always condemned by our prize courts, both in the last and the present war. These restrictions can be warranted by no other principle, than the unlawfulness of trading with the colonies of a belligerent in time of war, in a way not permitted in time of peace."

He asks, "whether it is possible that neutral states, in peace and amity with Great-Britain, should have *a right* to persevere in conduct, which may, in its natural consequences, make *England a province of France?*"

Supposing this to be the natural consequence, it would be difficult to prove, that a neutral has any such right: for the right of the belligerent to exist, is to be preferred to the right of neutrals to make gain.

"With what intention," he asks, "did the enemy open his colonial ports to neutrals? The single, manifest, and undissembled object was, to obtain protection and advantage in the war, to preserve his colonial interests without the risk of defending them, and to shield himself, in this most vulnerable part, from the naval hostilities of England."

"I see not," he continues, "how any mind can doubt, that a co-operation in such an expedient, by powers in amity with England, is a violation of the duties of neutrality."

He adds, that "this very motive for opening the colonial ports is avowed in the publick instruments, by which they were opened. With the first news of a war the orders of the mother country to open those ports are dispatched, as of course. Neutrals can shew no treaty, no convention with the enemies of Great-Britain, as a title to these privileges, that grow out of war, begin and end with it."

Page 183. He considers the probability of a quarrel with the neutral powers, in consequence of the resort to the remedy he has recommended, i. e. of withdrawing the indulgence hitherto allowed to this trade; and he endeavours, 3dly, to vindicate the *prudence of the remedy* by shewing, that the neutral powers will not quarrel with England on that account. He firmly believes they will not, because he is sure they ought not. On this head, the writer seems disposed to speak of the United States with some respect. He thinks the Americans are a sagacious people, who will not fail to discern their interest; that they respect justice, and therefore will acquiesce in the exercise by Great-Britain of her just rights, as a belligerent; and that, being lovers of liberty, they will not like to see France lord of the navies, as well as of the armies of Europe.

"But (he goes on to say, page 196) he would not recommend a total prohibition of the colonial trade, though he maintains the *right* of Great-Britain to interdict it without reserve. We might extend to all the French colonial ports the privileges, enjoyed by Americans at some of those ports in time of peace (which privileges he specifies); nay, we might allow such an intercourse with the colonies of Spain and Holland." "The farmers of America would in that case find the same market for their produce, and of course they would be on the side of conciliation and peace."

But even a war with the neutral powers, bad as he admits such a war to be, would be a less evil than the abuses of neutrality.

> "Peace with the neutral powers is more likely, after all, (he says) to be preserved by a firm than a pusillanimous conduct."
>
> "To conclude: a temperate assertion of the true principles of the law of war, in regard to neutral commerce, seems, as far as human foresight can penetrate, *essential to our publick safety*."

On the soundness of the doctrine of this writer, it belongs to the ablest American jurists and statesmen to pronounce a decision. As the pamphlet is written with considerable ability, and no little labour of research; as it is thought by many to convey the sense of the English government, and probably expresses the opinion of the nation too, it is obvious, that it will signify nothing on our side, to attempt an answer either by sophistry or invective. Indeed the answer will no less disgrace than disappoint America, if it should prove deficient either in candour or solidity. What can be plainer, than that nations, when they disagree, must appeal to reason, if they will not resort to force? If they do not choose to fight, they must negociate; and if they negociate, they must argue. Though our first magistrate assures us, that reason is the umpire between just nations, yet with his unfortunate and very unphilosophical antipathy against the British nation and government, and after all the false and silly things his adherents have said against the British treaty, negociation is understood to be the last expedient, to which our administration will think of resorting. It is palpably clear to common sense, that it should have been the first. For had an attempt been made to negociate when the British treaty was near expiring; when the British cabinet wished to make friends; and was discouraged to see itself without any; there is no doubt the dispute might have been prevented. At any rate, it would have been anticipated; and if our merchants had anticipated it, they would have saved some millions of dollars, which have since been captured and condemned. Thus it is, that the people have to pay for the national partialities and aversions of their rulers.

If our administration should attempt to frame a new treaty, they will not find in the federalists, we hope, the same want both of sense and principle, that fostered and protracted the opposition to Mr. Jay's. The negociation, it must be confessed, will be attended with great, we hope not insurmountable difficulties; and no man of sense will expect from it the recovery of every lucrative, neutral advantage, that we have at some times enjoyed. Our commercial and political situation would be much mended, if it were better ascertained; if our merchants knew what was safe, instead of conjecturing in the dark, what is right, what is permitted, or what will be maintained.

Great Britain most certainly is averse to a war with America. She is not only interested in our commerce and friendship, but dearly concerned to conciliate the exercise of her naval supremacy, if it be possible, with the judgment and conviction of the wise and able men among the neutral nations. Popular clamour, unsupported by that judgment, will soon expire; but the serious and steady censure of the wise will, in the end, augment the hatred and resentment, naturally engendered by her power, which will seek all opportunilies to obstruct its energies, and will surely find some at last to subvert its foundations. Nothing, we know from observation and experience, proves so fatal to the duration of any sort of dominion, as the wantonness of its abuse. Great-Britain, strong by her navy, by her insular position, by her liberty, and, perhaps, not less so by her justice, will desire, will endeavour, and *ought really* to make considerable sacrifices, rather than not succeed to gain, in favour of her maritime principles, the acquiescence, if not the applause of the well informed and fair minded classes of men in the neutral states.

The American re-impression of this pamphlet is executed in a style of great typographical elegance, and prefaced with the following short notice.

"It was intended to have prefixed to this edition, an introduction of some length, exposing, in a succinct manner, some of the sophistries with which this singular work abounds, by way of putting the reader on his guard against them; but as it is now proposed to follow it shortly with a formal answer, nothing more is thought necessary here, than merely to apprize the reader of this circumstance."

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE readily inſert the following note, not becauſe we are flattered by its politeneſs, but becauſe we think it fairly cloſes the controverſy, in which we have been engaged. What the writers may gain by Miſs Adams's ſilence we are not anxious to inquire, ſince we loſe nothing, while our ſtatements remain uncontradicted by the worthy woman, whoſe name we have reluctantly brought before the publick.

NOTE

To the Editors of the Anthology.

The Authors of the "Compendious Hiſtory of New England," replied to the review of their work, merely to defend themſelves againſt falſe charges and inſinuations, exhibited againſt them, which, had they remained uncontradicted, might have left wrong impreſſions on the minds of ſome of the readers of the Anthology. They had a right to expect different treatment from a body of men, who doubtleſs lay claim to the character of gentlemen and chriſtians. With the author of the remarks on their reply they certainly can have no controverſy. They are happy that his name is concealed from them and the publick. They envy him not any ſatisfaction, which he may now, or hereafter feel in reflecting on this tranſaction.

The authors of the Compendious Hiſtory feel no reluctance in reſting their reputation with the publick, as to the matter in controverſy between them and the Reviewers, on the facts already publiſhed. If Miſs Adams herſelf has any complaint againſt them, and ſhall think proper to make it known to them, they will aſſuredly liſten to it with friendly attention, and promptly do what in them lies to remove it.

With the Reviewers, and every other *anonymous* writer on this ſubject, they now take a final leave.

Gentlemen, Jan. 22, 1806.

YOU will pleaſe give the incloſed a place in the Anthology for January, and oblige

Your humble ſervts. GILBERT & DEAN.

OUR feelings having been severely wounded by the appearance of a paragraph in the *Monthly Anthology* for *December* last, concerning the miscellaneous works of Col. DAVID HUMPHREYS, and which did not meet our eye until the latter end of last week, we beg leave, through the medium of your Anthology, to express our gratitude to that gentleman for the humanity which first prompted him to present us with the work; himself having discharged every demand for paper, printing, &c. and the liberality with which he allows us the use of several hundred dollars, which we have received from the subscribers to his work, and of which he has never drawn a single cent—conſtantly evading it, whenever we have requested to be permitted to settle with him.

Of the abilities of Col. Humphreys, as an *author* or *poet*, better judges than either the *Editors* of the *Anthology*, or ourſelves, muſt decide. As a *ſoldier*, and a *patriot*, he has deserved well of his country—and as a man of *benevolence*, he will be gratefully remembered by many; but by none with more respect and esteem, than his obliged humble servants,

GILBERT & DEAN.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE U. STATES, FOR JANUARY, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

Ballſtown ſprings, a moral poem, written at Ballſtown in 1805. pp. 22. 12mo.

Ode aux ſouverains de l'ancien monde, ſur la croiſade actuelle. Par le Comte Joſeph Henry Auguſte De Maccarthy, Du Nouveau Monde. L'an de nôtre Seigneur 1806. 8vo. pp. 16.

An abridgment of univerſal geography, together with ſketches of hiſtory. Deſigned for the uſe of ſchools in the United States. By Suſannah Rowſon. Boſton. John Weſt. 12mo. 87 cents; 9 dols. doz.

The flowers of fancy, or poetical wreath; carefully ſelected from the beſt authors. Baltimore. Butler. 12mo.

Conſiderations on the publick expediency of a bridge from one part of the town of Boſton to the other. Boſton. Manning & Loring. 1806. 25 cents.

An examination of the Britiſh doctrine which ſubjects to capture neutral trade to ports not open in time of peace. Price 1 dol. Waſhington.

A ſhort account of the life and death of Rev. John Lee, a methodiſt miniſter in the United States of America. By Jeſſe Lee. Baltimore. John W. Butler.

A ſermon, preached at the ordination of Rev. Charles Lowell, January 1, 1806. By Eliphalet Porter, A. M. paſtor of the 1ſt church inRoxbury. Together with the charge, by Profeſſor Ware, and right hand of fellowſhip, by Rev. Mr. Buckminſter. Boſton. Belcher & Armſtrong. 8vo. 1806.

A ſermon, preached in Providence, at the ordination of Rev. Henry Edes, July 17, 1805. By John Eliot, D. D. paſtor of the New North church, Boſton. Providence. James Carter. 8vo. 1805.

NEW EDITIONS.

The 1ſt volume of The life and pontificate of Leo X. By William Roſcoe. Philadelphia. Lorenzo Preſs. 1806.

Hutchinſon's Xenophon. Philadelphia. Claſſick Preſs. 8vo. Price 2,50 bound. 1806.

Vattel's law of nations. 8vo. Price 2,50. Northampton, Maſſ. S. & E. Butler.

Medical inquiries and obſervations, by Benjamin Ruſh, profeſſor of the inſtitutes and practice of medicine and of chemical practice in the univerſity of Pennſylvania. In 4 volumes. The 2d edition, reviſed and enlarged by the author. Philadelphia: printed by T. & G. Palmer for the Conrads, &c. pp. 1757. 1806.

The Lay of the Laſt Minſtrel, a poem, by Walter Scott. Philadelphia. Hugh Maxwell. December 1805.

Volumes III. IV. and V. of Hugh Maxwell's and T. S. Manning's edition of Shakeſpeare's Plays, with the corrections and illuſtrations of various commentators; to which are added notes by Johnſon and Stevens, reviſed and augmented by Iſaac Reed. Philadelphia.

Democracy unveiled, or tyranny ſtripped of the garb of patriotiſm, a poem, by Chriſtopher Cauſtic, LL.D. &c. The third edition, with great additions. In 2 volumes, 12mo. New York. I. Riley & Co. 1806.

Thomſon's Seaſons, in miniature. 1 dollar, morocco gilt; 75 cents, ſheep, Philadelphia. James Kelley. 1806.

Poems by John Marriot, of the ſociety of Friends, including a ſhort account of the author, and extracts from ſome of his letters. New Bedford. Abraham Shearman, jun. 12mo. 1805.

Univerſal hiſtory, ancient and modern, from the earlieſt records of time to the general peace of 1801. By William Mavor, vicar of Hurley, and chaplain to the earl of Dumphries. In 25 volumes, 12mo. Each volume ornamented with an hiſtorical engraving; with ſeveral maps. Price 33 dols. bound; in boards, 27. Philadelphia. Samuel F. Bradford.

A northern ſummer; or travels round the Baltick, through Denmark, Sweden, Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and part of Germany, in the year 1804. By John Carr, Eſq author of the Stranger in France, &c. In a neat octavo vol. Price 2 dols. Charleſton, S.C. Morton. December 1805.

Life of Preſident Edwards. 12mo. 1 dol. Northampton. S.& E.Butler. 1805.

A particular account of the military atchievements of General Moreau, and a compariſon between his character and that of Bonaparte. Philadelphia. Literary Publication Office. 1806.

The Federal Calculator, or American ſchoolmaſter's aſſiſtant and young man's companion, being a compendium of federal arithmetick, both practical and theoretical; originally compiled by T. Dilworth, and reviſed and adapted to the currency of the United States, by D. Hawley. A new and corrected edition. Troy, New York. Obadiah Penniman & Co. 12mo. 1805.

An introduction to ſpelling and reading, in 2 volumes, being the 1ſt and 2d parts of a Columbian exerciſe. The whole compriſing an eaſy and ſyſtematical method of teaching and learning the Engliſh language. By Abner Alden, A. M. Troy, New York. Obadiah Penniman & Co. December 1805.

War in diſguiſe; or, the frauds of the neutral flags. London, printed: New York, re-printed by Hopkins & Seymour, for I. Riley & Co. &c. 1806. pp. 215.

The Salem collection of claſſical ſacred muſick, in three and four parts, conſiſting of pſalm tunes and occaſional pieces, ſelected from the works of the moſt eminent compoſers, ſuited to all the metres in general uſe. To which is prefixed, a ſhort introduction to pſalmody. Salem, Maſſachuſetts. Cuſhing & Appleton.

The ſafety of appearing at the day of judgment in the righteouſneſs of Chriſt. By Solomon Stoddard, formerly paſtor of the church in Northampton. 12mo. price 1 dol. Northampton, Maſſ. E. & S. Butler. 1805.

IN THE PRESS.

Επεα Πτεροεντα, or the diverſions of Purley. By John Horne Tooke. In 2 volumes, large 8vo. from the lateſt London edition in 2 vols. quarto. The types and paper have been made for this work alone, and Saxon and Gothick characters, the firſt of the kind executed in the United States, have been caſt at the expenſe of the publiſher at the foundery of Binny & Ronaldſon. The plates, with which the laſt edition was ornamented, have alſo been engraved for this edition by an artiſt of Philadelphia. Price 2,50 per volume, in boards. Philadelphia.

Lectures on the goſpel of St. Matthew, delivered in the pariſh church of St. James, in the years 1798, 1799, 1800, and 1801. By the Right Reverend Beilby Porteus, D. D. Biſhop of London. 8vo. Two volumes in one. The 2d American from the 5th London edition. Northampton, Maſſ. S. & E. Butler.

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A monthly magazine, to embrace eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, morality, religion, and a variety of other uſeful and intereſting matter. Each number to conſiſt of 32 pages 8vo. ſtitched in blue. Price 1,50 per annum iſſued ſingly; or 1,25 in packages of not leſs than ten each. Danbury, Conn. John C. Gray & Co.

Carr's northern ſummer. 1 vol. 8vo. fine paper. Portland. Thomas Clark.

Brooke's general gazetteer; or a new and compendious geographical dictionary: Containing

A description of the empires, kingdoms, states, provinces, cities, towns, forts, seas, harbours, rivers, lakes, mountains, capes, &c. in the known world: with the government, customs, manners, and religion of the inhabitants; the extent, boundaries, and natural productions of each country; the trade, manufactures, and curiosities of the cities and towns; their longitude, latitude, bearings, and diſtances in English miles, from remarkable places; and the various events, by which they have been distinguished: including a detail of the countries, cities, boroughs, market towns, and principal villages in G. Britain and Ireland; together with a succinct account of, at least, 700 cities, towns, and villages, in the United States, more than has appeared in any preceding edition of the same work; in which the numerous mistakes and deficiencies of European Gazetteers, respecting this country, are corrected and supplied. Illustrated by eight maps, neatly executed. Originally written by R. Brooke, M. D. The first American from the latest European edition, with great additions and improvements in every part. In one 8vo. vol. to contain about 8 or 900 pages of close printing and well bound. Price to subscribers 3,50. Philadelphia. Jacob Johnson.

Milton's Paradiſe Loſt, in miniature. 1 vol. Price in morocco 1 dol.; ſheep 75 cts. Philadelphia. Kelley.

Goldſmith's poems. Same ſtyle and price. Philadelphia. Kelley.

INTELLIGENCE.

Samuel F. Bradford, of Philadelphia, is preparing to put to preſs, The Works of Samuel Johnſon, LL.D. in eight volumes octavo. This edition, the publiſher aſſerts, will be much cheaper and warranted more correct and more beautiful, than the lateſt and beſt London editions.

* * *

American edition of Hudibras.—The ſubſcribers have juſt put to preſs, and will have ready for ſale in the ſpring, a new (and, they believe, the firſt American) edition of "HUDIBRAS: in three parts—written in the time of the late wars—by SAMUEL BUTLER: with annotations, a complete index, and a ſhort life of the author." It will be printed from the beſt Edinburgh edition, on wove paper, with a neat type, and will contain about three hundred pages, duodecimo. To add any thing to the merit of a poem, which for original wit and genuine ſatire the literary world conſiders unrivalled and inimitable, would be as unneceſſary as it would be difficult.

Wright, Goodenow, & Stockwell.
Troy, N. Y. Jan. 14, 1806.

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Dr. Cowdery has it in contemplation to publiſh a pamphlet, or ſmall volume, to be entitled, The American captives in Tripoli, containing the particulars of the capture of the Philadelphia frigate—a general deſcription of Tripoli, with the adjacent country, its curioſities, &c. and a ſketch of the cuſtoms and manners of its inhabitants. To which will be added, the journal at length, kept during his captivity, and an appendix containing the treaties and general relations between the United States and the Barbary powers. Some accurate views and drawings will be attached to the work.

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Mr. Cuſhing, of Amherſt, Newhampſhire, has iſſued propoſals for continuing the publication of The Piſcataqua Evangelical Magazine. This work, which was publiſhed the laſt year at Portſmouth, has for its object the promotion of religious knowledge and evangelical piety, particularly among the common people, who, it is believed, uſually feel the greateſt intereſt in works of this nature. This magazine will contain eſſays of a moral and religious tendency, biographical ſketches, occaſional illuſtrations of ſcripture, accounts of remarkable providential occurrences, &c. &c. It will be publiſhed in numbers every two months, each number containing not leſs than forty pages octavo.

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Mr. Joſeph Scott, author of the modern geographical dictionary, 4 vols. 8vo. dictionary of the United States, &c. &c. has iſſued propoſals for publiſhing, in a neat duodecimo volume, A geographical deſcription of the State of Pennſylvania, including an account of the rivers, mountains, trees, animals, ſoil, climate, diſeaſes, mineral ſprings, ores, foſſils, produce, fruit, farms, manufactures, publick improvements, roads, canals, bridges, education, colleges, and academies. Alſo, a deſcription of the counties; the extent, boundaries, and number of acres in each; the rivers, creeks, &c. and number of ſenators and repreſentatives, which each is entitled to ſend to the general aſſembly. With an alphabetical liſt of the townſhips in each county, and their population, according to the cenſus of 1800. Illuſtrated with a handſome map of the ſtate.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,

FOR JANUARY.

THE weather, during the first part of this month was cold and clear. This was succeeded by milder weather, with rain and frequent snows. Afterwards, extreme cold, continued and heavy snow, rain with violent winds followed by a perfect calm, which has continued through the latter part of the month, attended with a thaw, and a very moist and foggy atmosphere. The last circumstances will very probably influence the character of disorders in the month of February.

Inflammatory diseases have been most prevalent; but even of these the number has been small. Among children under three years, there has appeared a severe catarrh; in those above this period, peripneumony; in adults, pleurisy and peripneumony. All these diseases have yielded readily to the power of medicine. Very few instances of fever have occurred, and scarcely any of severe rheumatism. Apoplexy has been unusually common.

Editors' Notes.

AMONG the few bookſellers, who have tranſmitted to us for our notice or review the books which they have publiſhed, we mention with gratitude meſſrs. Riley & Co. of New-York. We hope they will not accuſe us of neglect in not having yet noticed any of the numerous volumes which we have lately received from their liberality, for in truth the pages destined to reviews, in ſeveral of our late numbers, have been entirely filled with materials, which we have had a long time on hand.

We have been much ſurpriſed at hearing, that ſeveral of out readers believed, that the remarks upon Rev. Dr. Holmes and Mrs. Warren, in the review of the Hiſtorical Collections in our laſt number, were ſarcaſtick, illiberal, and diſreſpectful. We certainly never intended to convey ſuch opinions, and we know that a critical analyſis of the ſentences in the review would not juſtify ſuch a conſtruction. Perhaps however we were obſcure in the compoſition, and perhaps ſome of our friends were careleſs in the peruſal. Writers are not always perſpicuous, and readers are not always intellectual.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

FEBRUARY, 1806.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

ACCOUNT OF THE ANCIENT LIBRARY OF ALEXANDRIA.

[Concluded.]

3. *A critical examination of the recital of Abulpharagius and Abdollatif.*

We may reasonably suspect that, since Abdollatif was the first historian, Abulpharagius had seen this passage, and has only commented upon and embellished it after his own manner. Abdollatif does not relate any of the circumstances which attended the destruction of the library; but what confidence can be placed in a writer who relates, that he saw what we know no longer existed at that time? "I have seen, says he, the portico and the college which Alexander the Great built, and in which was contained the superb library." Now these buildings were placed in the Bruchion, and since the reign of Aurelian, who had caused them to be destroyed, that is to say, at least nine hundred years before Abdollatif, the Bruchion was no better than a barren wilderness covered with ruins.

Abulpharagius, on his part, places the library in the *royal palace.* The anachronism is equally apparent. The royal buildings, being all in the Bruchion, could not have remained at that time. Besides, what signified the *royal palace* in a country which, for a long time before, had had no kings, and which had submitted to the emperours of the east?

As a story is not absolutely incontestible, because it is related by one or two witnesses, some have doubted this. Renaudot, in his history of the patriarchs of Alexandria, has shaken its authenticity by saying, "*this recital has something suspicious, as is very common among the Arabians.*" At length Querci, the two Assemani, Villoisin, Gibbon, and, in the last place, the author of the German dissertation, have all declared their disbelief of the fact.

Gibbon remarks, that two annalists, both of Egypt, have not said one word of a circumstance so remarkable. The first is Eutychius, a patriarch of Alexandria, who lived there three hundred years after the capture of the city by the Saracens, and who, in his annals, has given a very long history of the siege and of the events which succeeded. The second is El-Macin, a very veracious writer, author of the history of the Saracens, and who particularly relates in minute detail the life of Omar and the taking of Alexandria. Is it to be conceived, is it credible, that these two historians were ignorant of a circumstance so important; that two learned men, whom such a loss would have greatly interested, should not have made any mention of it; men, who lived, who wrote at Alexandria, and one of whom (Eutychius) at an epoch very near the event; and that we should have the first information from a foreigner, who wrote six centuries afterwards on the frontiers of Media?

Besides, Gibbon further observes, how could the caliph Omar, who was himself by no means an enemy of the sciences, have acted on this occasion against his own particular character, while he had only, to excuse himself from such an act of barbarism, the sentiment of the casuists of the Mussulman law? These declare (see the third volume of the Dissertations of Reland on the military law of the Mahometans) "that it was unlawful to burn the religious books of the Jews or Christians, on account of the name of God which they contained, and that the works of profane science, of historians or poets, physicians or philosophers, may be lawfully applied to the use of the faithful." This decision discovers no spirit of Vandalism.

To these reasons Mr. K. Reinhard adds his own. He remarks, that Eutychius in his annals (vol. ii. page 316) records the words of a letter, in which Amrou gives an account to the caliph Omar of the taking of Alexandria, after a long and obstinate siege. I have taken the city, says he, sword in hand, and without previous capitulation. *I cannot describe to you the treasures it contains. Let it suffice to inform you, that I have found four thousand palaces, four thousand baths, forty thousand taxable Jews, four hundred theatres, twelve hundred gardeners selling vegetables. Thy Mussulmen demand the pillage of the city and a division of the spoils.* Omar, in his answer, disapproves of this demand, and severely prohibits all pillage and dilapidation.

We observe, that Amrou, in his official relation of his conquest, seeks, as is the custom in our days, to exaggerate its value and importance. He does not omit a barrack, nor a Jew, nor a gardener. How could he have forgotten the library? He whom Abulpharagius describes as a friend of the arts and philosophy? Could he have thought, that this celebrated and ancient monument was not of sufficient value for him to have taken the trouble to render some account of it?

El-Macin also records the letter of Amrou, nearly in the same words; he says not one word of the library. It may be objected, that this letter was perhaps never written by Amrou, and that the two historians have forged it: but this would be an additional reason, why the library should have been mentioned, had it remained at that time. Would they both have omitted an article, which must have appeared of such vast importance in the eyes of learned men, inhabitants of Alexandria? Would they have prided themselves of appearing better informed on baths, and of kitchen gardens, than of the library? But if the letter be authentick, as its contents give us reason to believe, we must also pay some attention to the answer of the calif, who orders them to spare every thing found in the city.

We may then without much hazard draw the conclusion, that the library of the Ptolemies no longer existed in 640, the time of the taking of Alexandria by the Saracens.

We will adduce still further proof, founded on two writers, nearly cotemporaries of Omar. One of them, John Philoponus (whom Gibbon and others have confounded with John the grammarian, of whom Abulpharagius speaks), says, in his commentary on the Analyticks of Aristotle, "that in the *ancient libraries* there *were found* forty different books of the Analyticks." He does not expressly mention the libraries of Alexandria; but he lived, he wrote in that city, where they doubtless called *the libraries* by distinction, and be could not here speak of any others. We know beside, from Athenæus, Strabo, and Plutarch in his life of Sylla, that the writings of Aristotle had been very carefully collected for the library of the Ptolemies.

But if there still remains a doubt, let us consult the master of Philoponus, Ammonius Hermias, in his observations on the Categories of Aristotle. He lived at Alexandria, before the invasion of the Saracens. "Ptolemy Philadelphus (says he) has the reputation of having made great exertions to collect the writings of Aristotle, and to have liberally recompensed those who collected his productions, in consequence of which many fictitious copies were brought to him, and in the great library there *were found* forty different books of the Analyticks." It is very certain, that Ammonius and Philoponus both here refer to the Alexandrian library; that, which the former calls the *great*, being the same, which the latter denominates the *ancient library*. They both mention it as a thing which had been, and which remained no longer. We may even believe, that they allude to the library of the Serapion; for Philadelphus, who collected with so much care the writings of Aristotle, would doubtless have placed them among a collection which he originated, and for which he had a great partiality.

If we consult natural probabilities, we shall find them against the recital of Abulpharagius and the existence of a library in the time of Omar and Amrou. The books of the ancients were written on parchment, or on leaves of the papyrus. Those of the library of Alexandria must have been particularly of this last kind, as the papyrus was an Egyptian plant. Now the leaves of the papyrus were very subject to dissolution and to insects, particularly in the warm and humid climate of Alexandria, so that it was necessary frequently to renew the copies. Can we believe, that all the necessary care could have been given to the preservation of such a library after the reign of the Ptolemies, in the midst of wars, of insurrections that prevailed, and during which the taste for sciences and letters, as we well know, declined? The manuscripts in parchment, which probably were not numerous, might have lasted a longer time; but all the others must have become, after two or three centuries, food for worms.

Abulpharagius does not determine the number of the books, which, according to him, were burnt; but, says he, they served for six months to heat the baths of the city, and we know that these amounted to four thousand. "Hear and wonder!" adds he. It is indeed an object of admiration; books, which heat four thousand baths, during six months. A wit might observe, that Amrou, having taken the city precisely in the month of May, there could not have been a great necessity of hot water in the baths of Alexandria. The volumes or rolls of the ancients were not comparable to ours in folio, and the number of those burnt, at the highest estimation, could not amount but to three or four hundred thousand; the daily portion of each bath must have been very small. What strange materials for heating these cauldrons—old parchments and rolls of papyrus!! There must have proceeded a most exquisite perfume for the four thousand baths, and the whole city. These two ingredients might have well given an insufferable smoke, but could not serve to heat water. This last absurdity is one of the reasons, not the least strong, against the recital of Abulpharagius.

4. *Conjectures on the ultimate fate of the library.*

If it be then true, as it appears, that in 640, the time when Alexandria was taken by Amrou, the celebrated library no longer remained; in what manner was it dispersed and destroyed after 415, when Orosius assures us he had seen it? We will first remark, that Orosius speaks only of some *cases* which he saw in the temples, and not of the library of the Ptolemies, which was deposited in the Serapion. Recollecting also the troubles and the constant wars, of which Egypt was the theatre, from the time of the first Roman emperors, we must be astonished, that there remained any traces of the library in posterior times. Under Commodus the temple of Serapis suffered much by a fire, but without being totally destroyed, when the library must of course have been much injured. We also know the devastations, which the malicious genius of Caracalla made in Alexandria. The *Musæum* was demolished. Under Aurelian the whole of the Bruchion was destroyed. This emperor took the city and delivered it to the plunder of his soldiers.

Theodosius the Great, at last, stimulated by the exhortations of the bishop of Theophilus, reduced to ashes in the year 391 the Serapis. It is very certain, that all the buildings attached to the temple were at this time a prey to the flames. The destruction of the library must then be imputed to the christians; and we can hardly doubt, that the blind zeal of the early ages induced men, little enlightened, to destroy books and monuments which they thought might perpetuate or remind them of the worship of idols. If, after this, any portion of the library remained, it is probable that the second Theodosius, as fond of books as Ptolemy, might have appropriated them to his own use. If after this any thing had remained at Alexandria, what must have become of it during the wars which took place in its walls between Cyrillus and Orestes; and during the commotions which agitated it under the emperour Marcian? It is very probable, that there were then very considerable drafts upon it. The monks transferred many volumes to their monasteries; the emperours of the east to Constantinople, and to other cities, where they established schools. There is then no doubt that, towards the commencement of the ninth century, a large quantity of ancient books was found dispersed throughout Egypt. Leo Africanus relates, that the caliph Mamou sent into Syria, Armenia, and Egypt many persons with a commission to collect and purchase ancient books, and that they returned loaded with inestimable treasures.

Further let us recollect, that under Heraclius the Persians took and pillaged Alexandria, which they abandoned a short time afterwards; then came the Arabs, who could not possibly discover there the library, unless it had been miraculously preserved, of which unhappily we have no record in the history of literature.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

LETTERS FROM EUROPE. No. 2.

Naples...appearance of the streets, houses, and people...strada Toledo.... the villa...suburb of Kiaja.

Naples ranks as the third city in Europe in point of size; its population is said to amount to six hundred thousand, but more probably it contains less than two thirds that number. It stands at the extremity of its beautiful bay, and one side extends nearly to the base of mount Vesuvius. It is built at the feet and on the sides of several hills, the highest of which rises about midway between each extremity, and is crowned by the castle of St. Elmo. As the area on which the city is constructed is not very extensive, the houses rise to the height of seven and eight stories, and are many of them very large and magnificent.

The streets are remarkably clean, having a descent from the hills into the bay, into which the rain washes all the dirt. The pavement of them is the finest in the world. It is hewed from the lava in square pieces of equal size, and is laid in mortar; there is no sideways, but the whole street is even as a floor. This mode of paving is expensive at the moment, but is very durable, as there are very few carts or heavy vehicles in the city.

The strada Toledo may vie with any street in Europe. It is nearly a mile in length and terminates at one end in the Largo del Palazzo, where the royal palace is situated, and in the other in the place of the Spirito Santo, in which there is a colossal equestrian statue. The street contains several superb palaces of the nobility. I reside with a friend who has a noble apartment in a palace on this street, from the balconies of which I take great pleasure in regarding the crowds with which it is thronged. The carriages are very numerous and driven with a velocity, which seemed to me dangerous and unfeeling to the crowd on foot; though I am told, and believe it to be true, that, as the people are aware of this, they take care to get out of the way, and, if they drove slower, the obstruction would be so great that they would never get along. The population of this city is a motley mixture, composed principally of beggars, monks, and soldiers. The dresses are of all forms and colours, and have many of them a whimsical look. This fine street is disgraced in some places by being made a market place, and the stalls obstruct the sides of the way.

Some of the houses are built of lava entirely, others have only the foundations of lava and the walls constructed with fragments of softer stone, and stuccoed; they have, all of them, stone staircases. The floors of the rooms, even of the bedchambers, are laid with tiles or bricks. Each story is inhabited by a separate family, and the staircase is as common as the street, but not always so clean. The windows open down to the floor, and are furnished with balconies.

The strada Kiaja is the shortest communication between the suburbs of that name and the city. This street was formerly obstructed by a high hill, which one of their sovereigns cut through; but, in order to preserve the connection between the two parts of the city built on the hill, an arch was thrown across from one side to the other, over which the street passes forty feet above the pavement of the strada Kiaja, which terminates at the villa. This is a publick walk upon the borders of the bay. It is decorated with some fountains and statues; among others the celebrated Farnese Bull. The group of figures which surround it are principally modern, though admirably executed. Below the villa is the suburb of Kiaja, principally inhabited by fishermen. The fashionable ride for carriages in the evening is called the *Corso*, and extends from the villa down to Pausilino. It is more than a mile, and the road lays all along the edge of the bay. Towards the evening it is much crowded with carriages, that drive backwards and forwards for an hour or two, and enjoy the freshness of the evening. Some of the equipages are brilliant, and the ladies are fond of shewing themselves and criticising each other's dress and appearance. Nothing can be more delicious than this ride on the borders of the bay. In our country we should not think of taking an excursion for pleasure in an evening in the month of March; but here nankin clothes may be worn all winter, and the want of fire is seldom felt.

The streets are not lighted; a few solitary lamps only are seen hanging before the picture of the virgin. The footmen behind the carriages carry torches, and people in the street are generally preceded by a servant with a torch. During the early part of the evening the number of these torches illuminates the streets sufficiently, and have a brilliant appearance, though the soot and smoke of them are very inconvenient. They are obliged to extinguish them before they pass the palace, on account of the cannon which are kept loaded before it.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SILVA.

No. 12.

Spargit agreſtes tibi Silva frondes.—HORACE.

GRAY.

GRAY has had his full share of reputation, as a poet. Mason says, that he was one of the most learned men in Europe, and was skilled in all arts and sciences; this Johnson hoped was true, but seems to intimate his doubts. Johnson is supposed to have had great prejudices against Gray; I know not, that the supposition is well founded, for Johnson highly compliments his Letters and his Elegy; but, because he thought "the Bard" ridiculous, forsooth, he is prejudiced. Warburton, Walpole, Gibbon, and Smith have praised him, and perhaps justly; but Gray's admirers are not contented with the high applause, lavished on his name; they demand for their favourite universal acclamation, as if he had more tenderness than Ovid, more martial pomp than Pindar. I have good reason to think, that in his Elegy and his Bard he has been very much indebted to the Italian poets, particularly to Celio Magno and Petrarch. This subject I mean not now to investigate, for I have not leisure; and perhaps I might not flash conviction on the idolaters of this poet. Some of my friends, whose taste in general I love, think differently from me; but I candidly confess, I think the severities of Johnson on Gray more justifiable, than the encomiastick adulations of Wakefield.

THE PLANE TREE.

THE *platanus* of the Romans should be called "the old batchelor," for it never united its branches with the tendrils of the vine. Horace calls it "*cælebs*," and Martial "*vidua*," for the grape vines were never married to the plane tree, as to the elm and others. Old batchelors also love to drink much wine; they grow fat from the juice of the grape, and delight in constant potations. So the plane tree was nourished by wine, as we learn from Pliny, "compertum id maximè prodesse radicibus; docuimusque etiam arbores vina potare;" "it was found to be very nutritious to the roots of the plane tree; and thus we have taught even trees to drink wine." Macrobius and Valerius Maximus attest the same fact. An old batchelor is a mere plane tree.

GOLDSMITH.

WHO shall be compared to Goldsmith? His verse is softer to the ear, than the pearl of the sea to the nerve of vision. When I am tired with other reading, its influence is gentle, like the silent approaches of rain in the drought of summer. It flows as the village brook, which gives a pleasant sound, and makes the fields green and fruitful. I read him with more pleasure than Pope, for I believe he has more exquisite sentiment; more of pure morals; and more of that nature, which bursts out in Thomson, which finds a ready entrance to every heart, that is not corrupted by folly, or rendered callous by a city life. He has written little poetry, yet that little is like beads, strung in holy rosaries, or the continuous vibrations of the harp at midnight. All is musical and material in Goldsmith's verses. If you take away any thing, you injure the whole, for the little palace in fairy land was made of precious stones, and the dwarf jewel in the corner was as necessary, as the queen diamond, shining in the centre. Goldsmith's histories are not excellent. They were written for booksellers or bread, and therefore composed in a hurry, without reflection or labour of research. His "Vicar of Wakefield" is well known, and his "Citizen of the World" I read with more delight, than the "Persian letters" of Montesquieu. I am afraid that his volume of Essays is little read; but they contain a full harvest of sense in a style, simple and easy, without Swift's nudity of figure, and without Hawkesworth's ornamental decoration.

NATURE IN WINTER.

How inexhaustible is nature, how creative of pleasure! That man is not ethereal, who can look abroad on the world without emotion, and then retires into the little chamber of his soul, indifferent and careless of what is without. In the winter I cannot loiter in pine woods, or climb the nut-trees as in autumn, yet I love to look on the elm in a clear and cold morning, when the boughs and branches are hung with ice diamonds, which the sun makes most curious and beautiful. Even the little snow-bird twitters a short note, which I like; and the note is much louder, when he pecks the spider from under the eaves of the wood-house, where he was sleeping and dreaming of the flies he had caught in the past summer. I am not exclusively attached to books or to nature; for how melancholy should I have often been, if I could not philosophize with Tully on the vanity of life, or soar to heaven, in rapt imagination, with Milton. But I should be a brute if I saw the slanting sun in winter, and did not admire the steadiness of his course, though his warmth was feeble, and his dominion transitory. Even in this northerly month of February, I remarked that the currant bushes were a little green in the buds, & I picked a small flower, purple and white, from a bed of strawberry vines, where the earth was warm and full of coming fruitfulness. All have their reveries. I shelter myself with Thomson and his robin, with Cowper and his minnows, and with Burns and the family bible.

SWIFT.

The great excellence of Swift is his manly thinking. His style has no ornament, but is close, correct, and terse. He did not care for figures to decorate superficial thoughts; he well knew that his deep sense in pure, easy terms would engage the head and heart of every thinking reader. He is a plain gentleman, who tells honestly what he believes, and his belief was solid and rational. From Bolingbroke he acquired no splendour of declamation in prose, for he probably despised it; from Pope he did not learn to love imagery and sentiment in poetry, because perhaps he thought he might not equal his friend, or because his mind delighted in reflection, more than in fancy. He resembled Arbuthnot in wit and sense, yet Arbuthnot's works do not please like the writings of Swift. Johnson has praised Arbuthnot, but it is now difficult to discover the reasons of the elogy. The rhymes of Swift have been often praised, but never beyond their real merit. There is no laborious search for correspondent words; no alteration of sense for the convenience of the term; but all the rhymes are musical, and the sense of the whole poem is connected by the perfect regularity of the individual parts. If Pope and Goldsmith are studied for harmony of rhyme, Swift should be added, and so create a triumvirate.

WARBURTON AND DRAYTON.

Warburton speaks of "one Michael Drayton." A giant may mention a dwarf with contempt, and a lion may despise a contest with a kid; but it did not become even the hierophant of England to allude obscurely to the author of "Polyolbion" and "the Barons' wars." Drayton has all the quaintness of Spenser. He had an eye, that looked carefully and curiously on nature, and a mind, that did not despise learning. His fancy was creative and peculiar, of which his description of the bosom of a fair lady is an eminent example. Warburton himself had a towering imagination; a haughtiness of character, looking high, and carrying proclamation of importance. He marched in his episcopal robes, like a consul in the garments of triumph; and his demeanour gave evidence of an uncontroled spirit, originating in the consciousness of unlimited erudition, and of a high place in the august temple of English hierarchy. But Drayton, though not a leviathan in literature, was a charming poet in the natural age of English verse, when Chaucer was read; when Spenser was honoured; when Shakespeare lived; and when Sidney played at tournament and told the tales of Arcadia. Burton has highly praised him, and the learned Selden has written notes on the Polyolbion. I am afraid, that we do not ponder enough on the poetick pages of English bards, who wrote curiously, but most pleasantly, when England was young in letters. We do not drink at the fountain, where the water is purest; we do not climb to the top of the tree, where the fruit is the fairest; we do not ascend to the summit of the hill, where the prospect is widest and the air most sweet; but our indolence makes us grovel below; we gather a few fruits, which are shrivelled; and we suck in tainted water, which had corrupted in its course, and gives no nourishment.

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SHAKESPEARE'S MULBERRY TREE.

One Gastrell cut down the mulberry tree, which Shakespeare planted in his own garden at Stratford. This was profanation indeed. The legends of the Catholick church tell wonderful stories about bits of the coffin of Joseph of Arimathea, and the house of the Virgin Mary at Loretta. What miracles might not the chips of the mulberry tree have performed on the devout minds of the worshippers of Shakespeare! Such is the power of association, that, in very flexible fancies, we may easily believe, that the most beautiful thoughts would have been produced on so enthnsiastick a subject. We might have had from bards of purity and poetry odes equal to "the dove" of Anacreon, and sonnets superiour to "the laurel" of Petrarch. Gastrell will hereafter receive no mercy from the lovers of Shakespeare, and he will and ought to be a mark for the archers, a fit subject for the keenest shafts of the satyrist. The classical traveller visits the Tusculan villa of Cicero, and no longer finds a record or tradition of the spreading plane tree, in the cool shade of which Crassus and Antonius discoursed "de oratore." In like manner, when the pilgrim and poet, after a revolution of more than eighteen hundred years, shall inquire for the garden of Shakespeare, though he will find no vestige and hear no curious tale of the mulberry tree, yet his righteous indignation will rejoice at the reflection, that perpetual shame rests on the name of Gastrell, who unfeelingly destroyed in full luxuriance the hallowed object of Shakespeare's cultivation. No peace shall rest on his tomb. No one shall boast a lineage from the Goth. Whenever, in coming years, the jubilee of Shakespeare shall be kept with pageantry and pomp, with revelry and song on the banks of the Avon, the names of those, who love the poet, shall be received with welcome and greeting, but no blessing of pleasant remembrance shall descend on the memory of Gastrell, and his name shall not mar the feast-time and merry holiday of poetry and her worshippers.

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LOVE AND CHIVALRY.

I never believed in the existence of a golden age, when shepherds piped under trees, and when love was as pure as the water of the brook; but I have sometimes imagined, in the reverie of romance, that I should like to have lived in the feudal ages, "when all the men were brave, and all the women were chaste." The times of Arthur and the knights, of Charlemagne and the peers, of the Virgin Queen, with her flower of chivalry, have delighted my mind, and entranced my imagination. Love and courage then gave kisses of union, and every baron of virtue might then fight for a lady of love. Escutcheons, blazoned with the heraldry of honour and purity, and on the same brass-glittering shield were seen, and in curious courtesy, doves, the emblems of love, and lions, the pictures of bravery. The virgins of the imperial court were noble in lineage, renowned for their beauty, and beyond the praise of poetry for their virtue. The gallant knights and proud nobility were famous for their deeds of conquest in defence of honour and the ladies. In the time of chivalry, purity was the glory of the women, and beauty was the sister of purity. Then was the period of real love, then there was a true language to tell the conceptions of congenial souls; but gentlemen and peers exist no longer, and where are the damsels of the castle, where are the fair ladies of the court? In the room of chivalry, there is interestedness, there is falsehood, baseness, infamy. When a man now talks love to a girl, he is thinking of her land and her gold; he now seeks to grasp her wealth, or gratify his lust. But the men are not solely to blame. The women are not pure; they are not lovely; they have affectation of sentiment, and they have falseness of heart. It is a miserable age, when contracts of marriage are deeds of bargain and sale; when love is prostituted to venality; when the awful obligations of the matrimonial rite, mutually given and received in the presence of a christian minister and assembly, are nothing but legalizations of wrong and indentures of infamy. Oh, it is a miserable age. There was a time, when the armour of a hero was the record of his greatness, and the pledge of his success in gaining the hallowed heart of the baron's daughter. If the helmet waved with the white feather of conquest and constancy; if the shield was sculptured by the order of the sovereign with the atchievements of honourable war, the knight never sued in vain; if the heart of the female did not acknowledge another knight, not brighter in arms, not purer in affection, but a more legitimate lover, because fortunately he was first. This was noble, high minded, and full of generosity. But in these degenerated days of miserable pelf, men and women change their minds about love and marriage, as about houses and carriages. The first never buy a wife, and the second never entrap a husband, till wealth is accumulated into coffers, or till lust riots within, and calls aloud for revelry. I am not melancholy or mad. I look on the world with pleasure, and on my past days with joyfulness, but I cannot cry huzza to a state of society, where wealth in matrimony is the first, and the second, and the third requisite. When a man "*has made a good match*," he is to be pitied, for his years will be miserable; when a girl is "*well settled*," she is doomed to sorrow, for her heart knows no companion. Oh, that the days are gone, which were hallowed by the purity of the virgins of Lowerstein, and brightened with the glory of the barons of Hohenzollern.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

PARALLEL BETWEEN COWPER AND BURNS.

[From the Censura Literaria for November, 1805.]

The genius of Burns was more sublime, than that of Cowper. Both excelled in the familiar: but yet the latter was by nature as well as education more gentle, more easy, and delicate: he had also more of tenuity, while Burns was more concise, more bold, and energetick. They both also abounded in humour, which possessed the same characteristicks in each; one mild, serene, and smiling; the other daring and powerful, full of fire and imagery. The poems of one fill the heart and the fancy with the soft pleasures of domestick privacy, with the calm and innocent occupations of rural solitude, the pensive musings of the moralist, and the chastised indignation of pure and simple virtue: the poems of the other breathe by turns Grief, Love, Joy, Melancholy, Despair, and Terrour; plunge us in the vortex of passion, and hurry us away on the wings of unrestrained and undirected fancy.

Cowper could paint the scenery of Nature and the simple emotions of the heart with exquisite simplicity and truth. Burns could array the morning, the noon, and the evening in new colours; could add new graces to female beauty, and new tenderness to the voice of love. In every situation in which he was placed, his mind seized upon the most striking circumstances, and combining them anew, and dressing them with all the fairy trappings of his imagination, he produced visions, such as none but "poets dream." Wherever he went, in whatever he was employed, he saw every thing with a poet's eye, and clothed it with a poet's tints.

The hearts and tempers of these bards seem to have been cast in moulds equally distinct: while Cowper shrunk from difficulties and was palsied with dangers, we can conceive Burns at times riding with delight in the whirlwind, performing prodigies of heroism, and foremost in the career of a glorious death. We can almost suppose in his athletick form and daring countenance, had he lived in times of barbarism, and been tempted by hard necessity to forego his principles, such an one as we behold at the head of a banditti in the savage scenery of Salvator Rosa, gilding the crimes of violence and depredation by acts of valour and generosity! In Cowper, on the contrary, we view a man only fitted for the most refined state of society, and for the bowers of peace and security.

There is a relative claim to superiority on the side of Burns, on which I cannot lay so much stress as many are inclined to do. I mean his want of education, while the other enjoyed all the discipline and all the advantages of a great publick school. If the addiction to the Muses, and the attainment of poetical excellence were nothing more than an accidental application of general talents to a particular species of intellectual occupation, how happens it that among the vast numbers educated at Westminster, or Eton, or Winchester, or Harrow, among whom there must be very many of very high natural endowments, and where day after day, and year after year, they are habituated to poetical composition by every artifice of emulation, and every advantage of precept and example, so few should attain the rank of genuine poets, while Burns in a claybuilt hovel, amid the labours of the plough and the flail, under the anxiety of procuring his daily bread, with little instruction and few books, and surrounded only by the humblest society, felt an irresistible impulse to poetry, which surmounted every obstacle, and reached a felicity of expression, a force of sentiment, and a richness of imagery scarce ever rivalled by an union of ability, education, practice, and laborious effort? Thinking therefore that poetical talent is a bent impressed by the hand of Nature, I cannot give the greatest weight to subsequent artificial circumstances; but yet I must admit that in the case of Burns they were so unfavourable, that no common natural genius could have overcome them.

On the contrary, there were some points in the history of Burns more propitious to the bolder features of poetry, than in that of Cowper. He wrote in the season of youth, when all the passions were at their height; his life was less uniform, and his station was more likely to encourage energy and enthusiasm, than the more polished and more insipid ranks, to which the other belonged. In the circles of fashion, fire and impetuosity are deemed vulgar; and with the roughnesses of the human character all its force is too often smoothed away. An early intercourse with the upper *mobility* is too apt to damp all the generous emotions, and make one ashamed of romantick hopes and sublime conceptions. From blights of this kind the early situation of Burns protected him. The heaths and mountains of Scotland, among which he lived, braced his nerves with vigour, and cherished the bold and striking colours of his mind.

But it seems to me vain and idle to speculate upon education and outward circumstances, as the causes or promoters of poetical genius. It is the inspiring breath of Nature alone, which gives the powers of the genuine bard, and creates a ruling propensity, and a peculiar cast of character, which will rise above every impediment, but can be substituted by neither art nor labour. To write mellifluous verses in language, which may seem to the eye and the ear adorned with both imagery and elegance, may be a faculty neither unattainable, nor even uncommon. But to give that soul, that predominance of thought, that illuminated tone of a living spirit, which spring in so inexplicable a manner from the chords of the real lyre, is beyond the reach of mere human arrangement, without the innate and very rare gift of the Muse. That gift has regard neither to rank, station, nor riches. It shone over the cradles of Surry, and Buckhurst, amid the splendour of palaces, and the lustre of coronets; it shone over those of Milton, and Cowley, and Dryden, and Gray, and Collins, amid scenes of frugal and unostentatious competence and mediocrity; it shone over that of Burns, in the thatched hovel, the chill abode of comfortless penury, and humble labour.

If there be any who doubt whether, in the exercise of this gift, Burns contributed to his own happiness, let them hear the testimony of himself. "Poesy," says he to Dr. Moore, "was still a darling walk for my mind; but it was only indulged in according to the humour of the hour. I had usually half a dozen, or more pieces on hand; I took up one or other as it suited the momentary tone of the mind, and dismissed the work as it bordered on fatigue. My passions, when once lighted up, raged like so many devils, till they got vent in rhyme, and then the conning over my verses, like a spell, soothed all into quiet!" In truth, without regard to happiness, or misery, the impulse of the true poet towards his occupation is generally irresistible, even to the neglect of all, to which prudence and self-interest imperiously dictate his attention. Thus placed in the conflict of opposite attractions, he too often falls a victim to the compunctions of mental regret, and the actual stripes of worldly adversity. But the die is cast; even the misery, which is endured in such a cause, is dear to him; and the hope that his memory will live, and the pictures of his mind be cherished when his bones are mouldering in the dust, is a counterpoise to more than ordinary sufferings!

I do not mean to encourage the idea, that the imprudences, and much less the immoralities, of Burns, were absolutely inseparable from the brilliance of his talents, or the sensibilities of his heart. I am not justifying, I only attempt to plead for them, in mitigation of the harsh and narrow censures of malignity and envy. I call on those of dull heads and sour tempers to judge with candour and mercy, to respect human frailties, more especially when redeemed by accompanying virtues, and to enter not into the garden of Fancy with implements too coarse, lest in the attempt to destroy the weeds, they pluck up also all the flowers.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

THE REMARKER. *No. 6.*

Tantæne animis cælestibus iræ? VIRGIL.
Can heavenly minds such high resentment show? DRYDEN.

ONE might imagine, that the unavoidable calamities of life would sufficiently exercise our philosophy, without unnecessarily adventuring into experiments of patience; that mankind would prefer the improvement of their pleasures to the advancement of their pains; that there would be more pupils of the garden of Epicurus, than disciples of the tub of Diogenes. But hourly experience confirms the uncertainty of calculations in morals; and though the politician may prophecy from incidents the motion of empires, and the astronomer determine by phenomena the visitations of comets, there are no diviners in ethicks, that can prognosticate the inclinations of the soul. Tempers, touched by the same spark, explode into a variety of directions, and you may as readily assign a pathway to the hurricane in the wilderness, as regulate the consequences resulting from a principle.

Since the apostacy of our parents, and the entailment of their punishment, it has been the business of the theologian and moralist to alleviate the severities of our allotment. Precepts have accordingly been poured forth on the conduct of life, till their sources are dry, and the efforts of the modern essayist unavoidably restricted to a mere repetition of the sentiments of the dead. By what proselytes the instructers of antiquity were followed, or how extensively their humbler representatives are regarded, it would deservedly occasion the community a blush to relate. That so much labour has been employed, and so little achieved, will be a circumstance of humiliation to the vanity of undertaking; and the calculating portion of mankind, after an intimacy with society, will rather accept a professorship for the regulation of the winds, than fatigue their constitutions with lecturing the insane.

To those unread in the weaknesses of human nature, these sentiments may appear the offspring of misanthropy ; too prematurely delivered to be correct, and too distorted to pretend, in any degree, to a relationship with truth. That any should prefer uproar to rule, quarrel to quiet, anxiety to ease, supposes an eccentricity in choice, too unnatural for belief. Admitting, as moralists have degradingly asserted, that selfishness is the principle of action ; few, among the provident, would sacrifice their comfort for the limited satisfaction of disturbing their neighbours, or the whimsical diversion of appearing disagreeable. Were the feelings of an individual illustrative of the whole, I could conscientiously cite myself on the occasion, as an authority in point ; for, so wedded am I to conveniency, that I never draw on my boots after dinner, or stoop down to buckle my shoe, but I reflect, that I am abridging the amount of my days. Quietude is the essence of being ; and he is poor in the good things of this world, who has never rested his legs against the jambs of the fireplace, or wiped his forehead in the shade, after the fatigues of a promenade. The period of modern existence is contracted to threescore and ten, and they, who imbitter the trifle, are equally cruel and mad. Yet, on this theme, the voice of fact is as melancholy as decisive, and it will be discovered, that the Remarker, far from aggravating the disagreeable, has rather qualified the harsh. There are some spirits that appear to agree in nothing but to disagree, and the moment you fall within their influence, you must be possessed of the equanimity of Democritus not to be disturbed in the economy of your temper. They seem, as it were, born beneath a tempestuous quarter of the moon, when the maligner aspects of the firmament were ascendant, and, like the distempered period of their nativity, to be propitious to commotion and portentous of ill. The more you sacrifice to their arrogance, the more their perverseness increases, and not to struggle with the stream is to be buried in the foulness of its bottom. No sense of propriety, no feeling for delicacy, no observance of custom ever characterizes their carriage. The polish of etiquette, the gentleness of modesty, the sweetness of affability, with all the tender courtesies of intercourse, are wasted on them, like the refinements of the Houyhnhnms on the coarseness of the Yahoos.

"Let Hercules himself do what he may,
The cat will mew, the dog will have his day."

They remind you of those quadrupeds, that are too desperate to be domesticated, too wild for an interchange of reliance, that are turned forth to howl and to depredate in the shadow of the wilderness. In truth, though the persuasion may seem fanciful, they further appear peculiarly illustrative of the doctrine of transmigration, and many, less credulous than Jenyns, might be readily persuaded, that some, that now travel to and fro on *two legs*, seeking whom they may annoy, were, in aforetime, assisted on similar excursions, by the accommodating number and celerity of *four*. I remember not, whether the system of transformation of beings supposes the passage of higher natures into lower, or lower into higher, or both; but that the personages in question are rapidly accomplishing themselves for that which is here conceived their primitive condition, none will deny, and none will regret. Violent visitations become tolerable from the probability of their shortness, and these antidotes to enjoyment are only endured, for the present, thro' the soothing expectation of their returning to their origin.

Such are the wayward spirits that rejoice in disturbance; whose home, like the Sisterhood's of the Heath, is in the tempests they engender. But every principal has its subordinate, and, though we have exposed the leaders of the mischief, their accessaries remain to be noticed. That delicacy, which excuses petty offences, is unworthy the fidelity of the moralist; for great vices originate from trivial misdemeanours, and the calm of society may be ruffled by a whisper. Connected with the characters described, there are secondary malcontents, who, wanting the courage for open attack, gratify their malignity by sly innuendo and faint givings-out. They are remarkably skilful at a sneer, and can satirize with a compliment. They never smile but they wound, and never wound but they smile. The import of their speech is a sarcasm, and the expression of their countenances a bitter. There is something in the atmosphere of these beings more disconsolate than winter, and as you approximate the chillness of their latitudes, you perceive your mercury subsiding to the point of congelation. In their presence, the stream of conversation stiffens as it flows, and the reluctant observation is chilled in the delivery. Should circumstances deny them an opportunity to annoy you, they sit folded in an angle, hatching the solitary egg of ill-nature; perfecting mischief in embryo for the occasions of spleen. They listen to falsehood, and lay in wait to gather scandal; they delight in the narrative of disappointments, and are chagrined at the report of success. Suspicious of the narrowness of their capacities, the perfection of another cometh home like a censure; and the more perfect the character exhibited, the more radical their hate. Were they endued with resolution to execute what their malignancy concerts, their station would be paramount on the file of vexations; but to torture the malevolent with the mortifications of impotence is the agency of providence for the security of the virtuous. They accordingly contrive snares, that they want courage to spread; they construct engines for disturbance, that they fear to discharge,

"And live" like "coward" in their "own esteem,
Letting I dare not, wait upon I would,
Like the poor cat i' the adage."

These constitute the secondary denomination of malcontents; beings, less destructive in their tendency than their principals, but equally distorted in disposition and grain. If, by the moral code, the projection of an injury be alike culpable with the performance, they incur the consequences of a crime, without the pleasure of committing it. They sow seed, whose only produce is disappointment and shame. They fill their bosoms with bitterness, and waste themselves with cursing in private. In the bustle, attending the achievement of vicious designs, the accusations of conscience may, for a season, be suspended; but to support a sedentary existence of low machination and impotent desire; to wear away in the cool lucubration of iniquity and spite, is to experience the labour of Sisyphus, and endure the scourge of the Furies. By what motives such dispositions are actuated, it would puzzle the perspicacity of a Hindoo to discover. It is said, that the pain of excessive pleasure is delicious, but the pleasure of excessive pain is a paradox.

The subject matter of *Remarker Sixth* was the product of accident, rather than research. By this confession it is not the intention of the writer to apologize for its treatment, but to introduce the incident that awakened his reflections. That which is casually acquired may be leisurely revolved, and many examples, more pat than the present, might be exhibited of the felicities of chance. There are trains of reflection extending through every intelligence, and when a spark is imparted they hurry to explosion. The incident alluded to may be understood from what follows.

Several evenings ago I received a note from Mrs. Equinox, and my yesterday was devoted to meeting her wishes. Many months had elapsed, since I last darkened her doors, and many years, perhaps, may revolve ere I repeat my respects. As we had heretofore parted without a tear, we again even encountered without a smile. To me the coalition was as memorable as an eclipse, and the gloom that attended it not dissimilar to that of the phenomenon. There are people, who arrive and depart without exciting a reflection; there are some, whom we gaze after from the window, till they fade into nothing; there are others too, that we escort to the threshold with a sensation of relief. To which description of visitors Mrs. Equinox considered me as pertaining, I have not the curiosity to inquire; the opinions of the disagreeable are generally less distressing, than their presence. But, such is my regard for the lady, if accident conducts her to my door, I shall feel little compunction in securing its bolts.

It is thought, that no character is sufficiently corrupt to be devoid of a virtue; that some truth may reside even in the midst of depravity. In support of the sentiment I can quote the lady in question, for, to do justice to impudence, she is above deception. No cover is employed to secrete her deformities, no polish attempted to soften her rudeness; she is equally negligent of appearances or arts, and commits outrages on society without apology or shame. If there is any pleasure in exciting alarm, she is rarely destitute, too, of amusement; for every one, who ventures within her influence, is generally afflicted with an ague. Terror is considered, I believe, as a part of the *sublime*, and, as it is proper to feel what we mean to impress, I would recommend Mrs. Equinox to the cultivators of rhetorick. If, after a lecture or so from her ladyship, any one should be deficient in representing the *grand*, he may be a much better member of society, but is unquestionably no poet. I have, myself, for some time had a tragedy upon the stocks, which, owing to the incompleteness of its infernal machinery, I have hitherto delayed presenting the publick; but, since the visit aforenamed, I feel so adequate to every thing tremendous, that I now calculate on a representation in the course of the season. The act concluding with a *concert of furies*, which retarded at first the progress of my muse, will infallibly command the applause of the house ; for the principal infernal of the dramatis personæ is immediately taken from my ferocious entertainer. If the performers are not remiss in conceiving their author, my *number of nights* is as certain as day. One character, well defined, has supported a play, and I challenge all the *fallen* to parallel mine.

The countenance is considered by some as a preface to the character. How far the *doctrine of features* is fallacious or firm, the inquisitive or idle may decide for themselves ; neither capacity, nor leisure, promote my remarks. However, as many of my readers are perhaps students of the *exteriour*, a rough sketch of the lady's physiognomy may be somewhat appropriate, though ever so imperfect. Attend, then, and tremble !

Quamquam animus meminisse horret, luctuque refugit ;
Incipiam.

Between two opticks, more fiery than intelligent, imagine a thin partition of nostril, more censorious than wise ; to a mouth, rather extravagant than liberal, an expression more ferocious than brave ; to an elevated forehead, more wrinkles than imagination ; to an acuminated chin, more severity than decision ; imagine features to frighten children from their playthings, or convert dairies to curdle ; imagine that which you wish least to behold, and her portraiture is yours. But the history of her deformities concludes not with her countenance. Nature, in every passage of its performance, is incomparably uniform ; and her ladyship is as unique in ugliness, as the Graces in beauty. To extend then this *head-size* to a *full-length* ; conceive of a figure, nearly five feet eleven, skinny, faded, and coarse, angular in its outline as a diagram in trigonometry, and as uncomfortable to contact as the edges of a bureau ; conceive of something between a woman and a man, with the roughness of the one and the sex of the other ; a being whom the women must disown and the men disavow ; and, should you still fail of her likeness, call up, to assist your conception, the weird sisters of Shakespeare ; for, like them, she is indebted to a petticoat for the testimony of her sex. In fine, imagine a woman, every property of whose nature is at enmity with love, who, in a scarcity of her kind, would be the most puzzled for a partner, and, though you believe me romancing, you will possess Mrs. Equinox to the nicety of a fraction.

Thus much for the disposition and appearance of this uncomfortable lady, my interview with whom remains to be decribed. To discuss the enormities of society is the office of the essayist, in the performance of which, accommodation is delinquency. To employ lenitives as a recipe for abuse, or to solicit violence by entreaty, is like indulging a diseased man to facilitate his cure. Should the Remarker be considered therefore as too profuse of his caustick, let the tender-hearted be instructed, that more are injured by forbearance than correction. This affecting to do something, and executing nothing, is relinquishing the rod to the children, and making a mockery of discipline. But to the lady.

On approaching the mansion of Mrs. Equinox, agreeably to her note and disagreeably to my wishes, I experienced a foreboding, resembling that of a truant returning to his tutor, and involuntarily performed several evolutions about the premises, without arriving at her door. But, finally recollecting that there was no avoiding the visit, and feeling that the apprehension of difficulty was worse than the encounter, I sufficiently rallied my spirits to elevate the knocker. The noise of its fall was like the knell of my joys. The morning was cold and blue, and the winds sang mournfully in the key-hole. I felt as if attending, in the character of chief mourner, the funeral of the whole family of the *Agreeables*. Luckily, at my entrance, no one was in the parlour, and, remembering that genuine courage derived accessions from reason, I was beginning to argue myself into magnanimity, when Mrs. Equinox appeared. What before has been hinted of our meeting I will not enlarge upon; suffice it that we encountered without a smile, for we had parted without a tear.

To love or hate at first sight is accounted whimsical, yet much of a character may be gathered from a glance. Of the correctness of prepossession, I could produce Mrs. Equinox as an instance, for in a moment you are persuaded that she is possessed with a familiar. The composure of her first salutation resembles that tranquillity in the heavens, which is the precursor of a tempest, and you may read, even in her countenance at rest, the inclemency of her temperament. The day of my visit, unfortunately, was rather dirty under foot, and, forgetting in my agitation to make use of the scraper, I unwittingly traced the carpet with mud, from the entry to the fire-place. From ladies less punctilious in their household than my hostess, such a clownish manœuvre might have produced a reproof, and to one of her susceptibility the defacement of a *kidderminster* was ample matter for invective. Accordingly, with features divided between simpers and frowns, and tones set at variance by raillery and spite, concealing and betraying a desire of revenge, she immediately proceeded to open an attack. "You have been particularly unfortunate in selecting your road, sir, or the ways are much fouler than I was led to suppose. Why, you are lumbered with mud like a wheel from the mire, and your heels are as heavy as a ploughman's in spring. Here, Mary, Mary, for the love of neatness, come hither, or we shall be buried alive. The gentleman, I believe, imagines that we were created merely to rub and to clean. Here have I been *slaving* and driving to make things as they should be, and the first recompence of my industry is dirt and disgrace." Unluckily, the tongue of Mrs. Equinox being suspended in the middle, her vocal abilities were just double her neighbours, and, on occasions as interesting to hussies as the present, her utterance reminded you of the running down of a jack. Sensible that apologies would only aggravate her eloquence, I was silently about retiring to disencumber my boots, when my ears were accosted by the full pathos of her pipe. "For goodness-sake, stand still, sir, or return in your track; your shifting about only widens the grievance. Because the room is a dirt-heap, must you make it a kennel? I protest, such proceedings would put a saint out of patience. I will say, since the commencement of my housekeeping, I never witnessed the like, and, if this be the consequence of receiving a visit, I desire, for the future, to meet company abroad." Thankful that any track was yet favourable for retreat, I gladly proceeded in quest of the door, and, while busied in removing the cause of affront, very nearly concluded on effecting my escape. But it was written in my horoscope that the day should be foul, and I disconsolately returned to the scene of my sufferings.

The season, preceding the arrival of dinner, was principally devoted to peevishness and slander. The attendants either did what they should not, or did not what they should. One thing was badly executed, and another omitted. This servant was stupid, and that servant perverse. Every incident was productive of errour, and every errour of regret. Characters were pecked to pieces, like the jack-daw in Æsop, and reputations dispersed as lightly as feathers. It was hinted, that such a lady was addicted to cordials, and that hoops were in fashion with some folks for more reasons than one; that the complexion of the Miss Maythorns were purchased at the colourman's, and that the teeth of the Ivories never grew in their heads. But her strictures concluded not here. The whole line of my ancestry next passed in review. My great grandsires and grandams found little grace in her sight, and my uncles and aunts were disparaged by pairs. I was cautioned, from the fate of my parents, to learn wisdom in time, and instructed that the downfal of our house had proceeded from inattention and pride. Her method of determining the merits of characters was peremptory and expeditious; for she listened to no counsel for the accused, and her decisions were removed above the reach of amendment. Dinner, generally conducing to cheerfulness and content, I conceived that her ladyship might presently relapse, and that a little good-humour would yet lighten the scene. But the sequel of my visit brought nothing but gloom. The repast, instead of operating in the way of an emollient, only aggravated her disorder to a fiercer excess. Every thing again, as before, supplied a cause for complaint, and I found, that it was equally as impracticable to stop her mouth with a feast, as to affect her obstinacy with an argument.

Thoroughly exhausted by this time with the entertainment I had witnessed, I anxiously awaited an opportunity to retire, and immediately upon the removal of the cloth and the circulation of the glass pretended an appointment and escaped the concern. As the dwelling of my entertainer retreated behind me, the countenances of objects regathered their smiles, and, comparing the scene I had left with the evening around me, I fervently reflected, that harmony was the worship of angels and discord the diversion of devils.

Such are the tempers that unnaturally contribute to the disaster of society; who tend at the sources of pleasure to make turbid their streams; and, not satisfied with sipping the cup of bitterness alone, infuse the draught of their neighbours with disappointment and dregs. But far from these and their influence be the fortunes of my friends; may their cups ever flow with the juice of Anacreon, and their brows ever beam with a wreath of his clusters.

To the Editors of the Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

I present through you to the publick an essay, translated from the Decade Philosophique. The subject is interesting ; the original is elegant in composition, and the version is worthy of the original. These considerations should induce every one to devote an half hour to reading it slowly, and examining seriously the truth of its reflections. But if such reasons will not excite attention, particularly from your fair friends ; I may excite their curious diligence by hinting, naivement, that their sex is more interested in the pleasure they will receive, than perhaps they might otherwise imagine. As an honourable cavalier, however, secrecy is a knight's duty in matters of trust. Were I even authorized to tell all that I know, I would not, from motives of policy, make use of the extent of my powers ; and should I be continually importuned to make a full declaration, I shall speak darkly, as in a parable of the East, that when the nymphs of Hindostan were requested to adorn with the most beautiful shrubs the publick gardens in Delhi, one of the lovely virgins of the city, having done her part of the duty in the soft, early twilight, charged the birds of the morning not to carol the name of her, who had planted the wild rose from the woods of Arabia in the flower walk of Hafiz, the most beautiful quarter in the metropolis of India.

MISFORTUNES OF AN ILL-DIRECTED PASSION FOR LITERATURE.

AS I was strolling last summer in the valley on the north of Montmartre, I saw, under a cluster of elms, planted on the declivity of a hill, at the side of a fountain, a young man, whose melancholy and serious aspect announced an afflicted or jealous lover. He had a book, which he opened, shut, opened and shut again, alternately. Passing near enough to perceive that he was reading poetry, and, decyphering at the head of the page, *Narcissus*, I doubted not but this was the poem of the unfortunate Malfilâtre, and imagined, that the reader might well be a poet, who took a lesson from the work of a man with whom he appeared to sympathise in misery.

I left him and continued my ramble. An hour after, I passed by the same spot : the young man was no longer there ; but I perceived a paper in the place where I had met him. Let us see, said I to myself ; it is perhaps a love-letter from his mistress, or some effusion of his muse. It was neither, but a letter from a friend.

I read it ; it appeared to me less the work of a man of wit, which now might be neither extraordinary nor original, than of a man of sense, which is more rare and more useful. It contained wise counsels, applicable to many young men, who believe themselves capable of every thing, because they have their heads crammed with phrases ; and I believe I shall do them a service in publishing this letter, from which they may derive considerable advantage.

'I answer, my young misanthrope, to the epistolary declamation, which you have addressed to me against those who have not done justice to your love and your talents for the belles lettres. You call those people barbarians : they have said nothing but what is reasonable. I think I see your brow contract at these words ; but calm yourself and listen.

'If you were guided by the imperious genius, which estranged Malfilâtre and Gilbert from a useful and modest profession, and caused the first to die of hunger, and the second in a hospital, I should pity you for having been born under a star so inauspicious, and I should not attempt to oppose an irresistible inclination, by counsels, of which I should feel the impotence; but I think there is yet time to make you listen to reason.

'If any one knows you well, it is myself, who have been with you from early life. You have been occupied with useful studies, nature has endowed you with talents, you write poetry agreeably, your prose is easy, you have taste and learning, and your imagination is brilliant; you are, at five and twenty, an interesting young man, and of distinguished merit. But permit me to say, that I see not in you the real essence of genius; it is genius, however, that you flatter yourself you possess, and you mistake for it ebullition and transports of fancy.

'Bold ideas, which shed a brilliant light on a whole generation; great conceptions, which command the admiration of contemporaries and of posterity; creations, in short, of the beautiful and true, are not within your dominion; you cultivate with success known plants, but you have never discovered new ones. You write, I allow it, an easy letter, a tender and amusing romance, an agreeable comedy, perhaps even some interesting scenes in a tragedy; I grant you also the talent of embellishing an article of politicks or philosophy, and sometimes of interspersing it with strokes of vigorous eloquence; but on nothing do you stamp that charm of novelty, or of profound learning, which gives interest to every writing, and arrests the attention and remembrance of readers. Writings of this kind are works of massy gold, and yours are only glittering tinsel.

'Your talents are of a nature to procure you the applause of brilliant companies and superficial societies; but never will they give you a reputation, which is wafted beyond your country or the age in which you live. It is only for a reputation of this kind that one ought to devote himself exclusively to letters. Glory then takes the place of fortune. But to lose fortune, without acquiring glory, is too complete a deprivation. You run this risk, my dear friend, by your literary infatuation, which makes you regard simple and useful occupations with disdain and aversion.

'You are enraged against men in office, who have little confidence in the capacity of those who make a trade of authorship. You will not suffer the talents of a man of letters to be regarded as excluding those of a man of business. In your fury against such a heresy, you had nearly gone back to the deluge to seek facts which might refute it. You cite Moses, who made laws and canticles; David, who knew how to reign and compose odes; Solomon, who was the wisest of kings and the most wanton of poets; Xenophon, Demosthenes, Cicero, Seneca, Machiavel, Bocace, Bacon, and in France de Thou, who drew up decrees and composed history; Richlieu, who overthrew tyranny, cannonaded Rochelle, and wrote tragedies in secret; Bemis, who was a minister and a love-sick poet; Turgot, who abandoned the dryness of calculation for pretty verses; Necker, who formed an alliance between eloquence and arithmetick; Calonne, who wrote like a literary man, and governed like a statesman; Mirabeau, who united in the highest degree the magick of oratory to the depth of political investigation.

'Do not these men, you exclaim, after this multitude of quotations, do not these men directly confute those savages, who maintain the incompatibility between the cultivation of letters and the honourary professions in society? Do you believe, that a man, who can compose a book, cannot also write an official dispatch?

'Yes, my friend; Thomas, who was a writer of a certain rank, was unable, when he was secretary to M. de Praslin, to write a tolerable letter of business. There is some difference between an academy and a statesman's office. Academick speakers know not how to reason with simplicity; they make fine phrases, as a dancing master displays beautiful steps. Literature with men of business is an excellent accessory to the education, which is necessary for them; but it ought not to be the principal part of it. We ought to be able to express ourselves with elegance and purity; but we ought not to apply this talent to things of a frivolous or uninteresting nature. If, for example, you direct your abilities towards objects of positive and substantial utility; if, instead of inventing romantick scenes, and of abandoning yourself to metaphysical delusions, you seize hold of an abstruse question, and unfolding its difficulties you shew it in a clear point of view, which facilitates the decision of it, you will make a profitable use of your knowledge and your pen. Noisy acclamation will not strike your ear, but you will gain the approbation and esteem of men of sound understanding.

'These are the men, whose suffrage and support a young man ought to seek. I am not surprised at your distress, and the despair which results from it. To what end are your verses, your romances, your comedies, or your moral and philosophical essays? These are blossoms, which yield no fruit. It is wheat, that is most necessary for you. Cultivate it then in your ground.

'Employ your talents only for solid acquisitions; a field of corn is more valuable than a parterre. Determine upon a profession; it is by a profession that one takes his station in society. I would not wish you to make an absolute divorce from your Muse, but I advise you to treat her as a friend, whom one visits when he has nothing of more importance to do.

'A woman, who is amiable and artless, affectionate to her husband and children, is preferable to the nine nymphs of Parnassus. Endeavour to merit such a treasure; but, I repeat it, you will not obtain her unless you fix upon a profession. An unsettled man is a supernumerary in the world. A man of letters, who, with subordinate talents, seeks for glory, is a false Jason, who attempts with a wretched skiff the conquest of the golden fleece. He is a sleep-walker, who wanders in the region of dreams; rouse yourself, my friend, depart from this airy region, and enter into that of realities, where the man, who rears and supports a family, is considered of importance by his fellow creatures.'

I embrace you, L. F.

The lessons contained in this letter are not new, but it may not be amiss to repeat them. If they were observed, there would be fewer follies, and literature would number as her sons only those who are born to honour her. It would not be disgraced by those libellers of party, who, not being able to obtain a reputation by their own merit, endeavour to obtain it by attacking that of others. These weak and brittle minds imagine they lessen the admiration of contemporaries for this enlightened age. Reason will always make their efforts prove abortive. Such attempts are hoar-frost, which falls on the roof of the pantheon and is dissipated by a single ray of the sun.

It is only idleness, and the want of a useful and laborious profession which places the pen in the hands of so many individuals, who are so little qualified to guide it. Hence they learn to be scribblers and fabricators of libels, as people without a trade and without a home become owners of false money and highway robbers. V.L.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SANS SOUCI.

Stealing and giving sweets. SHAKESP.

Augustus.

AUGUSTUS, who loved Virgil and Horace, used to place himself between the two poets at table. Virgil was asthmatick, and Horace had weak eyes. The emperour used to say, jestingly, "Ego sum inter suspiria et lacrymas;" I am between sighs and tears.

A blind man's idea of light.

M. Rohault wished to communicate the idea of light to a blind pupil; after a long and elaborate discourse, when he hoped he had in some measure succeeded, he was asked this question by the blind man, "Is not light made of the same materials as sugar?"

How to be happy.

How much it would conduce to our happiness to be select in our friends and books; to choose them both for their good sense and knowledge; to be contented with a small but certain income; to have no master and few servants; to be without ambition, envy, avarice, or a law-suit; to preserve our health by exercise, instead of medicine; to love and hate only on just grounds; and to enjoy life without effort.

Musicians.

Professed musicians are generally ignorant, imprudent, and foolish people away from their instruments; a musician, after a concert, should be treated like his instrument, put into a case and carried home.

Pedants.

"I hate," says Montaigne, "those scholars who can do nothing without their books." In fact, those men have no knowledge, but can tell you where some may be found. They serve as *indexes* to good authors. They will tell you, that in such a chapter of Cicero or Quintilian there is a good thought. Science is a sceptre in the hands of some men, and a bauble in those of others.

Philosophers and poets sport with the follies of mankind, tradesmen make an advantage of them, and players both sport with them and profit by them.

Folly.

Of all the definitions of folly, that given by M. Bailli has not the least merit. "Folly is the tyranny that visible objects exercise upon our imaginations."

Life.

The progress of it may be compared to a play. Act 1. State of innocence. Act 2. The passions. Act 3. Love of study. Act 4. Ambition. Act 5. Devotion and quiet.

Friendship of women.

Women are more constant in friendship than men, for these reasons: the temperament of women is more cold, and therefore less likely to change or fly off from an object, to which they are once attached. The same coolness of constitution renders them more subject to timidity; and so they adhere to objects of affection, because they are fearful of losing what they value.

Scaliger.

Scaliger used to say, that he could not comprehend the causes of three things; the interval of an ague, the motion of the sea, and the nature of his own memory.

Medici.

The family of the Medici, most probably, took their rise from some ancestor, who was an eminent *physician*, as they still bear in their arms the device of five pills.

Etymology of Decrepititude.

The comparison of human life to the burning and going out of a lamp was familiar with Latin authors, as we know by the terms "*senes decrepiti.*" A lamp, just about to expire, was said *decrepare*, to cease to crackle. Hence metaphorically, persons on the verge of the grave were called decrepit men.

Solitude.

It is an observation of Seneca, that we should mix company and retirement, in order to make them both pleasant by change. The wish always to be alone shows the temper of a wild, ferocious animal, carries with it the dismal darkness of the tomb. The effect of such a disposition of mind is well described by an ancient phrase "cor suum edens," eating his own heart. Absolute singleness is the character of the Deity only; but man is too feeble and dependent to subsist by himself.

...

Swift was invited by a rich miser with a large party to dine; being requested by the host to return thanks at the removal of the cloth, uttered the following grace:

Thanks for this miracle!—this is no less,
Than to eat manna in the wilderness.
Where raging hunger reign'd we've found relief,
And seen that wondrous thing a piece of beef.
Here chimneys smoke, that never smok'd before,
And we've all ate, where we shall eat no more.

...

Aristippus was very fond of magnificent entertainments, and loved a court life. Dionysius asked him, in a sarcastick manner, the reason, why philosophers were seen often at the gates of princes, but princes never at the doors of philosophers? "For the same reason," replied the philosopher, "that physicians are found at the doors of sick men, but sick men never at the doors of physicians."

...

Sonnet on a Sonnet, by Lopez de Vega.

Capricious—a sonnet needs must have;
I ne'er was put to't before—a sonnet!
Why fourteen verses must be spent upon it,
'Tis good however t'have conquer'd the first stave.

Yet shall I ne'er find rhymes enough by half,
Said I, and found myself i' th' midst o' the second,
If twice four verses were but fairly reckon'd,
I should turn back on th' hardest part, and laugh.

Thus far with good success I think I've scribbled,
And of the twice seven lines clean got o'er ten;
Courage! another'll finish the first triplet;
Thanks to the Muse, my work begins to shorten.
See thirteen lines got through, dribblet by dribblet;
'Tis done, count how you will, I warr'nt there's fourteen.

POETRY.

EXTRACT FROM SOUTHEY'S

MADOC.

. . THERE was not, on that day, a speck to stain
The azure heaven ; the blessed Sun, alone,
In unapproachable divinity,
Careered, rejoicing in his fields of light.
How beautiful, beneath the bright blue sky,
The billows heave ! one glowing green expanse;
Save where along the bending line of shore
Such hue is thrown, as when the peacock's neck
Assumes its proudest tint of amethyst,
Embathed in emerald glory. All the flocks
Of Ocean are abroad : like floating foam,
The sea-gulls rise and fall upon the waves ;
With long protruded neck the cormorants
Wing their far flight aloft, and round and round
The plovers wheel, and give their note of joy.
It was a day that sent into the heart
A summer feeling : even the insect swarms
From their dark nooks and coverts issued forth,
For one day of existence more, and joy ;
The solitary primrose, on the bank,
Seemed now as though it had no cause to mourn
Its bleak autumnal birth ; the Rocks, and Shores
And everlasting Mountains, had put on
The smile of that glad sunshine, . . they partook
The universal blessing.

TRUE STORY OF AN APPARITION.

By Gay.

SCEPTICKS (whose strength of argument makes out,
That wisdom's deep inquiries end in doubt)
Hold this assertion positive and clear,
That sprites are pure delusions, rais'd by fear.
Not that fam'd ghost, which in presaging sound
Call'd Brutus to Philippi's fatal ground,
Nor can Tiberius Graccnus' goary shade
These ever-doubting disputants persuade.
Straight they with smiles reply, Those tales of old
By visionary priests were made and told.
Oh, might some ghost at dead of night appear,
And make you own conviction by your fear !
I know your sneers my easy faith accuse,
Which with such idle legends scares the Muse ;
But think not that I tell those vulgar sprites,
Which frighted boys relate on winter nights,
How cleanly milk-maids meet the fairy train,
How heedless horses drag the clinking chain,
Night-roaming ghosts, by saucer eye-balls known,
The common spectres of each country-town.
No, I such fables can like you despise,
And laugh to hear these nurse-invented lies.
Yet, has not oft' the fraudful guardian's fright
Compell'd him to restore an orphan's right ;
And can we doubt that horrid ghosts ascend,
Which on the conscious murderer's steps attend ?
Hear then, and let attested truth prevail ;
From faithful lips I learnt the dreadful tale.

Where Arden's forest spreads its limits wide,
Whose branching paths the doubtful road divide,
A traveller took his solitary way,
When low beneath the hills was sunk the day.
And now the skies with gathering darkness lour,
The branches rustle with the threatened shower ;
With sudden blasts the forest murmurs loud,
Indented lightnings cleave the sable cloud,
Thunder on thunder breaks, the tempest roars,
And heaven discharges all its watery stores.
The wandering traveller shelter seeks in vain,
And shrinks and shivers with the beating rain :
On his steed's neck the slackened bridle lay,
Who chose with cautious step th' uncertain way ;
And now he checks the rein, and halts to hear
If any noise foretold a village near.
At length from far a stream of light he sees
Extend its level ray beneath the trees ;
Thither he speeds, and, as he nearer came,
Joyful he knew the lamp's domestick flame
That trembled thro' the window ; cross the way
Darts forth the barking cur, and stands at bay.

It was an ancient lonely house, that stood
Upon the borders of the spacious wood ;
Here towers and antique battlements arise,
And there in heaps the mouldered ruin lies.
Some lord this mansion held in days of yore,
To chace the wolf, and pierce the foaming boar ;
How changed, alas, from what it once had been !
'Tis now degraded to a publick inn.

Straight he dismounts, repeats his loud commands :
Swift at the gate the ready landlord stands ;
With frequent cringe he bows, and begs excuse,
His house was full, and every bed in use.
What, not a garret, and no straw to spare ?
Why then the kitchen-fire and elbow-chair
Shall serve for once to nod away the night.
The kitchen ever is the servants' right,
Replies the host ; there, all the fire around,
The Count's tir'd footmen snore upon the ground.

The maid, who listen'd to this whole debate,
With pity learnt the weary stranger's fate.
Be brave, she cried, you still may be our guest ;
Our haunted room was ever held the best :
If then your valour can the fright sustain
Of rattling curtains, and the clinking chain ;
If your courageous tongue have power to talk,
When round your bed the horrid ghost shall walk ;
If you dare ask it, why it leaves its tomb ;
I'll see your sheets well air'd, and shew the room.
Soon as the frighted maid her tale had told,
The stranger enter'd, for his heart was bold.

The damsel led him through a spacious hall,
Where ivy hung the half-demolished wall ;

She frequent look'd behind, and chang'd her hue,
While fancy tipt the candle's flame with blue.
And now they gain'd the winding stairs' ascent,
And to the lonesome room of terrours went.
When all was ready, swift retir'd the maid,
The watch-lights burn, tuck'd warm in bed was laid
The hardy stranger, and attends the sprite
Till his accustom'd walk at dead of night.

At first he hears the wind with hollow roar
Shake the loose lock, and ſwing the creaking door;
Nearer and nearer draws the dreadful sound
Of rattling chains that dragg'd upon the ground:
When lo, the spectre came with horrid stride,
Approach'd the bed, and drew the curtains wide!
In human form the ghastful phantom stood,
Expos'd his mangled bosom dy'd with blood.
Then, silent pointing to his wounded breast,
Thrice wav'd his hand. Beneath the frighted guest
The bed-cords trembled, and with shuddering fear,
Sweat chill'd his limbs, high rose his bristled hair;
Then muttering hasty prayers, he mann'd his heart,
And cried aloud: Say, whence and who thou art?
The stalking ghost with hollow voice replies,
Three years are counted since with mortal eyes
I saw the sun, and vital air respir'd.
Like thee benighted, and with travel tir'd,
Within these walls I slept. O thirst of gain!
See, still the planks the bloody mark retain.
Stretch'd on this very bed, from sleep I start,
And see the steel impending o'er my heart;
The barbarous hostess held the lifted knife,
The floor ran purple with my gushing life.
My treasure now they sieze, the golden spoil
They bury deep beneath the grass-grown soil,
Far in the common field. Be bold, arise,
My steps shall lead thee to the secret prize;
There dig and find; let that thy care reward,
Call loud on justice, bid her not retard
To punish murder; lay my ghost at rest:
So shall with peace secure thy nights be blest;
And, when beneath these boards my bones are found,
Decent inter them in some sacred ground.

Here ceas'd the ghost. The stranger springs from bed,
And boldly follows where the phantom led:
The half-worn stony stairs they now descend,
Where passages obscure their arches bend.
Silent they walk; and now through groves they pass,
Now through wet meads their steps imprint the grass.
At length amidst a spacious field they came:
There stops the spectre, and ascends in flame,
Amaz'd he stood, no bush or brier was found,
To teach his morning search to find the ground.
What could he do? the night was hideous dark,
Fear shook his joints, and nature dropt the mark:
With that he starting wak'd, and rais'd his head,
But found the golden mark was left in bed.

What is the statesman's vast ambitious scheme,
But a short vision and a golden dream?
Power, wealth, and title, elevate his hope;
He wakes: but, for a garter, finds a rope.

PAIRING-TIME ANTICIPATED.

A fable. By Cowper.

I SHALL not ask Jean Jaeques Rousseau,*
If birds confabulate or no;
'Tis clear that they were always able
To hold discourse, at least in fable;
And ev'n the child, who knows no better,
Than to interpret by the letter,
A story of a cock and bull,
Must have a most uncommon skull.
It chanc'd then, on a winter's day,
But warm and bright, and calm as May,
The birds, conceiving a design
To forestal sweet St. Valentine,
In many an orchard, copse, and grove,
Assembled on affairs of love,
And with much twitter, and much chatter,
Began to agitate the matter.
At length a Bulfinch, who could boast
More years and wisdom than the most,
Entreated, opening wide his beak,
A moment's liberty to speak;
And, silence publickly enjoin'd,
Deliver'd briefly thus his mind.
My friends! be cautious how ye treat
The subject upon which we meet;
I fear we shall have winter yet.
A Finch, whose tongue knew no control,
With golden wing and satin pole,
A last year's bird, who ne'er had tried
What marriage means, thus pert replied.
Methinks the gentleman, quoth she,
Opposite in the apple-tree,
By his good will would keep us single,
Till yonder heav'n and earth shall mingle,
Or (which is likelier to befal)
Till death exterminate us all.
I marry without more ado,
My dear Dick Redcap, what say you?
Dick heard, and tweedling, ogling, bridling,
Turning short round, strutting and sideling,
Attested, glad, his approbation
Of an immediate conjugation.
Their sentiments so well express'd,
Influenc'd mightily the rest,
All pair'd, and each pair built a nest.
But though the birds were thus in haste,
The leaves came on not quite so fast,
And destiny, that sometimes bears
An aspect stern on men's affairs,
Not altogether smil'd on theirs.
The wind, of late breath'd gently forth,
Now shifted east and east by north;
Bare trees and shrubs but ill, you know,
Could shelter them from rain or snow,
Stepping into their nests, they paddled,
Themselves were chill'd, their eggs were addled;
Soon ev'ry father bird and mother
Grew quarrelsome, and peck'd each other,
Parted without the least regret,
Except that they had ever met,
And learn'd, in future, to be wiser,
Than to neglect a good adviser.

Instruction.

Misses! the tale that I relate
This lesson seems to carry—
Choose not alone a proper mate,
But proper time to marry.

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* It was one of the whimsical speculations of this philosopher, that all fables which ascribe reason and speech to animals should be withheld from children, as being only vehicles of deception. But what child was ever deceived by them, or can be, against the evidence of his senses?

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 1.

Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Vol. I. 1785. *4to. pp.* 568.

[Continued.]

V. SOME *select astronomical observations made at Chelsea, latitude* 42° 25′, *and* 26″ *in time east of the university at Cambridge. By the Rev. Phillips Payson, F.A.A.*

The astronomical observations, here selected, are those of several emersions of Jupiter's first, second, and third satellites in 1779; three solar eclipses, namely, in June, 1778, October, 1780, and April, 1782; two lunar eclipses, namely, in May, 1779, and November, 1780; and the transit of Mercury in November, 1782.

VI. Observation of the transit of Mercury over the sun, Nov. 12, 1782, *at Ipswich. By the Rev. Manasseh Cutler, F.A.A.*

The going of the clock was carefully examined, and the times of all the contacts, except the first external, were determined.

VII. A memoir, containing observations of a solar eclipse, October, 27, 1780, *made at Beverly: Also of a lunar eclipse, March* 29, 1782; *of a solar eclipse, April* 12, *and of the transit of Mercury over the sun's disc, November* 12, *the same year, made at the president's house in Cambridge. By the Rev. Joseph Willard, president of the university.*

Beside his own observations the author of this memoir furnishes us with those of some other gentlemen, who accompanied him in attending to these phenomena. And having corresponding observations of the first of the said eclipses at Beverly, Chelsea, Penobscott-Bay, and Providence in the state of Rhode-Island, he subjoins their differences of longitude, which he had deduced, and consequently their longitudes from Cambridge, that of Chelsea relatively to Cambridge being known. Hence it appears, that the longitude of Beverly eastward from Cambridge is 1′ 11″ in time; that of Penobscott-Bay 9′ 15″; and that of Providence 1′ 7″ westward.

From the times of the contacts of Mercury at the said transit, president Willard, using Mayer's solar tables, and De La Lande's tables of Mercury, calculates the angle of Mercury's apparent way with the ecliptick, the time of the ecliptick conjunction, the errour of the tables in the latitude of Mercury at that time, which appears to be 5″.98 in defect. He also deduces the place of Mercury's ascending node, and calculates it from the tables; whence it appears, that the latter differs from the former 1′ 34″ in excess.

VIII. Observations of a solar eclipse, October 27, 1780, *made at St. John's Island, by Messrs. Clarke and Wright. In a letter from Mr. Joseph Peters to Caleb Gannett, A.M. Rec. Sec. Amer. Acad.*

These observations were made at a place called *Charlotte-town*, which, according to Mr. Wright's determination, is situated in 46° 13′ of north latitude, and 62° 50′ of west longitude from Greenwich. In this account it is stated on the authority of a gentleman, belonging to Yarmouth-Jebouge-Harbour, on the western coast of Nova-Scotia, that this eclipse, which excited great attention in this part of the country, was total there for a moment.

IX. Observations of a solar eclipse, October 27, 1780, made at the university in Cambridge. Communicated by Caleb Gannett, A.M.

The observers of this eclipse at Cambridge were the Rev. Professor Wigglesworth, Mr. Gannett, and the Rev. John Mellen. They did not perceive the beginning of the eclipse, but noted very particularly the disappearance and reappearance of various spots, which were then visible on the sun, and the end of the eclipse. And these may be compared with other corresponding observations; some attention having been paid to the passage of the moon's limbs over solar spots by most of the astronomers, who observed the eclipse. The quantity of the eclipse they estimated at 11$\frac{2}{3}$ digits.

X. An observation of a solar eclipse, October 27, 1780, at Providence. By Joseph Browne, Esq.

The beginning of the eclipse was not seen, but the times, when the moon's limb first touched certain solar spots, were ascertained, and that of the end was noted by three observers. By measure with a micrometer Mr. Brown determined the quantity of the eclipse to be about 11$\frac{1}{10}$ digits.

XI. Observatians of the solar eclipse of the 27th of October, 1780, made at Newport, Rhode-Island, by Mons. de Granchain. Translated from the French, and communicated by the Rev. President Willard.

By these observations times are determined, when limbs of the sun and moon, and the sun's horns passed over the vertical and horizontal wires of a telescope, and when the eclipse ended, at a station on Goat-Island in 41° 30′ 30″ of northern latitude.

M. de Granchain also observed the lunar eclipse of the 11th of November, 1780, at the same place. And the memoir contains his observed times of the beginning, immersion, and emersion of certain spots, and the end.

XII. An account of the observations made in Providence, in the state of Rhode-Island, of the eclipse of the sun, which happened the 23d day of April, 1781. By Benjamin West, Esq. F.A.A.

The quantity of the eclipse and the time of its end were determined. And Mr. West calculated the moon's diameter from the magnitude of the eclipse and the length of the chord, joining the cusps at the time of greatest obscuration.

XIII. Account of the transit of Mercury, observed at Cambridge, November 12, 1782. By James Winthrop, Esq. F.A.A.

Observations of this transit by Judge Winthrop are contained in Professor Williams' account of those, which were made by himself and others. But, in the memoir before us, the author gives a more particular relation, with some additional facts and remarks.

XIV. Observations of an eclipse of the moon, March 29, 1782, and of an eclipse of the sun, on the 12th of April, following, at Ipswich, lat. 42° 38′ 30″. By the Rev. Manasseh Cutler, F.A.A.

Relative to the lunar eclipse,

the beginning, immersion, and emersion of several spots, and the end were observed, and the times of the phenomena respectively determined.

Of the solar eclipse the beginning and end were seen, and the times noted by Dr. Cutler, and two other gentlemen, who observed in company with him.

XV. On the extraction of roots. By Benjamin West, Esq. F.A.A.

The author's design in this performance we shall give in his own words. "What I chiefly aimed at was, to render the method of extracting the roots of the odd powers easier, and less burthensome to the memory; and, I think, I have not failed in my attempt. The method, followed by *Ward*, and others, is excellent, but is attended with too much difficulty in getting the divisors; especially for learners, who are not acquainted with the reason of the rules. That difficulty I have striven to remedy in the following work."

Dr. West here gives the investigation and exemplification of rules for extracting the third, fifth, and seventh roots; and observes, that similar methods may be found for extracting the roots of the even powers, and that he has not met with an instance, where the approximation is not as rapid by his rules, as by those of Ward.

It may be seen by looking into Ward's Algebra, in his "Young Mathematician's Guide," that in the process of forming theorems for extracting the roots of simple or pure powers, the equation immediately preceding each theorem is of the affected quadratick kind, *e* representing the part of the root to be found or the unknown quantity. But instead of solving this equation in the usual manner, and thus obtaining a rule for finding the remainder of the root, the author deduced his theorem by making the unknown quantity itself a part of the divisor. Hence arises the difficulty, which learners experience in finding the divisors in this method. The excess of this difficulty above the degree of it, which belongs to the common method of extracting the square root, Dr. West, we think, has avoided in his rules, which he obtained, as an algebraist will readily perceive, by a process differing from that of Ward in the solution of the aforesaid equations, which are treated as affected quadratick equations.

In a similar manner a general theorem for the extraction of roots may be investigated, from which these and other particular rules are easily deduced by only substituting particular for general and distinguishing quantities. But the general rule of approximation for the extraction of roots, which we prefer to any that we have seen, was discovered by Dr. Hutton, and is in his arithmetick, and in the *Mathematical Text-Book*, used in the University.

XVI. A new and concise method of computing interest at six per cent. per annum. By Philomath.

This memoir contains two concise rules for computing the interest of any principal, expressed in pounds and parts of a pound, for any time, expressed in months and parts of a month, at the rate of 6 per centum. They are obtained by contracting the operation for finding the answer to a single example, stated in compound proportion. The conclusions however depend on general principles, and their truth is sufficiently apparent. These rules are not given as new discoveries, but probably with a view to extend the knowledge of them, and to shew their truth. And to facilitate their application tables of decimal parts of a pound and of a month, with the manner of deducing the interest at any other rate from that at 6 per cent. are annexed.

XVII. Several ways of determining what sum is to be insured on an adventure, that the whole interest may be covered. By Mercator.

Three methods are here given. The first is said to be most common. It is therefore probable, that the last is less extensively known. For we think no person, acquainted with this, would ever make use of that. To extend the knowledge of the last method, and to show its advantage relatively to the others by comparison we suppose to have been the object of the communication.

To be continued.

ART. 4.

Letters from Europe, during a tour through Switzerland and Italy, in the years 1801 *and* 1802, *by a Native of Pennsylvania.* Philadelphia, 1805, Bartram. 2 *vols,* 8*vo. Price* $6,50.

EVERY traveller, when he breaks from the comforts of his own home, and is beginning to estrange himself from the blessings and habits of his country, creates himself, at once, a kind of hero of adventure. His fancy is chivalrous in its wanderings, and is already blazoning in the tilts and tournaments of the sublime passions of men. He rushes, with all the impetuosity of vain enterprise, into the romance of life, because every thing is new, strange, and confused. All his former anxieties, duties, and habits he leaves at the sill of his own door, and, as he departs from it into distance, he amuses the weariness of his many footsteps with the new motion of physical change, and enlivens the solitude of his mind with the strange operations of moral alteration. That our author is eminently of this character and spirit, we shall have occasion to show hereafter.

The book is two stout volumes, anonymous in the title page ; but we find that vanity gets the better of the author's prudence, and he grows so charmed with himself, that he cannot help hinting to the *eager* world, in the second volume, who he is. It is dedicated to a Mr. Hamilton, "of the woodlands," partly on account of his "liberal application to horticulture." No book was ever less wanted, than the Pennsylvanian's, and none ever deserved type and paper less. But hear his reason for publishing ; "he is the first American, who ever wrote his travels." His *columbianisms* are sufficient credentials to prove to us *whence* he came, and *whither* he is going. "Debemur nos nostraque morti."

We will now perform a little of our itinerant duty with our literary traveller. We should not be able to follow him in very close succession, however, if the path had not been so well trodden before him, for his own track is so faint, that we are half the time out of sight of our guide.

The Pennsylvanian begins now to show himself the hero we described. He drives off full tilt along the gay "Boulevards de Paris," and in his erratick ardour he declares to us, that "he happily missed running over any body in the Rue St. Dennis, or on the Pont neuf ;" and he rattles the reader to Basil, though distant from Paris some hundred miles, in the hurry of one short letter.

From Basil he proceeds to Zurich, and from Zurich to Berne. Though Berne is the capital of all the Swiss cantons, and has so much to interest the traveller, our author has not said a word on the peculiar neatness and style of this city, nor even informed us, whether the French, or German language is spoken here. He says nothing of the cathedral, which is the most imposing and solemn Gothick pile in Europe ; nor of the western part of the city, which hangs so strangely so many hundred feet over the rushing torrent of the Aar. The following paragraph contains every word, our author says of Berne. " The next morning we rose with the lark, before the easy cits had left their beds, breakfasted on the banks of the Aar on a loaf of bread and bottle of wine, and brandishing our oaken staffs went on again with fresh spirits for Thun."

We next find our guide at Altorf, the capital of the canton of Uri, situated nearly on the *Lake of the four cantons.* The next objects of grandeur in Swisserland, to the Alps, surround this lake. Mr. S. has passed it, and passed it without observation. Its borders are the extent of the sublimest scenery. The imaginations is here under a new and strange operation of nature. It sometimes rises to sublimity on the wild surfaces of its eternal mountains, whose frozen summits stand steadfastly in the heavens, and glitter with a faint and distant light, which has yet to reach our sight ; and it sometimes sinks to the profoundest horrour, in the deep and dark vallies, which stretch beneath. It was in these solemn and silent recesses of nature, that the Swiss heroes held their secret revolutionary meetings for the freedom of their country. It was along these cliffs and glens, that the wild Tell leapt after the thin and fleeting form of liberty.

The reader is now carried through the picturesque valley of Schœllenen, without knowing it ; and he is transported over the stupendous mountain of St. Gothard by the most turgid swell of conceited description. Those, who have not experienced the hardships and terrours of the Alpine regions, will know nothing of them in the *heroicks* of the Pennsylvanian, though he may feel them in the lines of Pope.

———At first the towering Alps we try,
Mount o'er the rocks, and seem to tread the sky,
Th' eternal snows appear already past,
And the first clouds and mountains seem the last ;
But these attained, we tremble to survey
The growing labours of the length'ned way ;
Th' increasing prospect tires our lab'ring eyes,
Hills peep o'er hills, and Alps on Alps arise.

We now leave these sublime altitudes, where we have overlooked the world, and descend from that cold elevation, where we forcibly felt our proximity to the other planets, to the smooth surface of the lake Maggiore, and the still plains of Lombardy, " diis patriis Italoque cælo."

The writer's first letter on Italy (Let. 6) begins with the different modes of travelling in that country, by voiture, (better known there by the name of vetturino) brocache, and post. He does not approve of travelling by post, which is indeed the only mode, by which a gentleman can travel with any convenience or advantage in this country, on account of " being obliged to travel with a lacquey," or in other words, with a *courier avant.* This, however, is not the case; for, if travellers do not speak Italian, they can generally make themselves current, in any part of Italy, with a very moderate share of the French language.

We have now to pass through the old states of Milan, Lodi, Parma, Modena, and Bologna, then united under the futile title of the Cisalpine Republick, and since denominated the kingdom of Italy. But of the political changes and oppressions of these dukedoms he says nothing, and the reader is not even informed, that, by the articles signed by Melas after the victory of Marengo, Buonaparte was admitted to Milan with triumphal entry, and placed over the whole of subjugated Lombardy (excepting the Venetian state) from the Alps to the Appenines, and from the Adriatick to the Mediterranean.

We now meet our guide at Florence, and our curiosity is highly excited to have all the interesting objects of "Firenze la bella," pointed out to us. We regret, that the limits of a review preclude our filling up the deficiencies of our author's letter on this city. How cold and stupid must he be, who has gazed on the figures of "*Day and Night*," and of "*Morning and Evening Twilight*;" resting on the tombs of Julio and Lorenzo of Medici, not to mention more than their mere names and place; who could view these, without beholding the splendour of *Day* breaking from a body of marble, or without feeling his whole soul overshadowed with the thick and impenetrable darkness of *Night*; or who would not perceive his sight was dimmed, and that light was mysteriously stealing away from every surrounding object, in the effect of the figures of *Twilight!* These are the powers of a genius so bright, so mysterious, and so dark, as that of Michael Angelo!

In his letter on Florence, our author has said little of this intellectual prodigy; little of the bright Gallileo; nothing of the intricate Machiavelli; & nothing of the dark spirit of Dante, who declares to us, he will often make holy visitations on the still banks of the Arno. We think also, as our author is an American, (and, "for that reason," troubles his countrymen with his travels) he might have done more, than merely to mention the name of Americus Vespucius, and tho' no sarcophagus, proudly fretted with the history of his enterprises, contains his bones, still he ought to have entered the church of Santa Bourgona, where, on a rough tombstone, is this incription:

S. Amerigo Vespucio subque amicis, XXXII.

Mr. S. here speaks of that strange order of men, who seem to have descended from the ancient Troubadours, and who call themselves *Improvisatori*, and quotes Dr. Moore upon them; but as neither the Doctor, nor himself, has given a specimen of their powers of *impromptu*, we will subjoin the following courteous address.

Di Bartolo, e di Baldo, illustre figlio,
Colmo di zel, di probita, di onore
Alla tua patria accresci un gran splendore.
Ampio di mente, e multo piu di core,
Non ti pone in sgomento alcun pen 'glio,
E di prospera sorte ogni favore
Recevi ognor senza inarcaai il Ciglio.

Of the Florentine Gallery, tho' instituted by Cosmo, finished by Lorenzo, and protected by the succeeding families of the Medici, our author gives no history. Of its splendid treasures he does not think much, though still among them are the beautiful antiques of the young Apollo; the head of Alexander, sighing after other worlds to conquer; and the Roman slave, who is *still listening*. Among the pictures, are the Holy Family of Corrigeo, the young St. John of Raphael, a Maddalena of Guido, and the Venus of Titian. These are mentioned by Mr. S. merely as articles in his hotch-potch catalogue. As the corridors of this gallery are replete with *chronological* specimens of the fine arts, and as its saloons contain still so many exquisite pieces of the classical painters, we would recommend the reader to consult "Saggio Istoria della Galleria di Firenze," 8vo. 2 vols. and a more modern description in French, printed at Florence, 1804.

We leave Florence for Siena, and though the country to this city is so picturesque, we hear nothing of it. At Siena, our traveller "*staid, while his horses were feeding*," and makes not an observation, except this very sensible one, "*the Cathedral has a linsey-woolsey appearance.*" He now passes along the still and retired regions of Balsena and Montipascone, without a single remark, though the poet here recommended so strongly, this pleasant and sweet retreat from the cookshops, and noise, and dust of the city.

> "Si te grata quies, et primam somnus in horam,
> Delectat, si te pulvis, strepitusque rotarum,
> Si lædit caupona, Ferentinum* ire jubebo."
> Horat.

We are now in the ancient capital of the world, and seem forever to have lost our guide among ruined temples and falling monuments. We sometimes see him leaning against a tottering column, and sometimes catch him gliding through the broken arches of huge aqueducts; and so do we the lean and cold-blooded priest, or the fat and sweltering capuchin. Here again is the same fulsome inflation of the writer's style; and because his subject is more sublime, he thinks he must become more turgid. It will be too fatiguing to us, and too uninteresting to our readers, to trace the heavy and Gothick feet of our author through the solemn and dark ruins of imperial Rome. We will not profane its deep gloom and awful assemblage of stupendous objects, by here holding communion with him.

Of St. Peter's he has said much, and much incorrectly. In his history of it, he asserts, that it was *three* hundred years in building; it was but one hundred and six. Instead of its being begun in 1450, in the time of pope Nicholas fifth, it was commenced under Julio second, in 1506, by Bramante, on the spot where the first christian church was built by Constantine. Bramante, in the sublimity of his genius, so projected St. Peter's, that the most perfect of the ancient temples, the pantheon, could be sustained by this solid superstructure of christian faith. That is, that the dimensions of this cathedral should be proportionable to the dimensions of the pantheon *for its dome*.

But the lines of Bramante, being reduced by the succeeding artichects of St. Peter's, the dome was consequently reduced a few feet in diameter, and in 1588 Domenico Fontana hung this bright *hemisphere* over that world of architectural beauties. The colonnade, which was afterwards added, (and which our author calls a "*sweeping forest of* 300 *columns*,") is the splendid work of Bernini. We must now confess, that we have no sympathy in a single description of Mr. S. at Rome, and we can remain with him there no

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* This was an ancient town, situated between Montefiascone and Viterbo.

longer. He evidently has a soul, which can reflect no brightness in the full splendour of St. Peter's, and which can feel no melancholy in the fading glory of the Colisœum.

Tivoli, the ancient Tibur, was, probably, a deserted city in the time of Augustus, as it was built some hundred years even before the time of Romulus. Horace says,

> ——Mihi non jam regia Roma,
> Sed vacuum Tibur placet.

Mr. S. speaks of Tivoli, as if its peculiarity consisted in its having once been a splendid city, and not in the classical remembrance of the sweet retirement of Horace, where he spent such merry times with Mæcenas; nor in the splendour and magnificence of the villa's of Lucullus and Adrian. Horace thus speaks of it.

> Tibur argeo positum colono,
> Sit meæ sedes utinam senectæ.

On the modern Frescatti and the ancient Tusculum our traveller is *wholly* silent, though, on its hills was the "Superni villa candens Tusculi, of Horace, and there Cicero enjoyed his "Dies Tusculanos."

We are now fast approaching the end of our journey, having to trace a distance only of one hundred and fifty miles to Naples. Here we have sometimes to move with a slow and solemn step, through the gloomy ranges of sepulchral monuments, overhung with the mists of the *campagna*, and sometimes to saunter listlessly along the mellow fields and through the ethereal expanse of the ager Felix.

Naples, as a city, has every thing to interest and please the traveller, whether his sight be confused with the moving column of men, which struggles through the Toledo, or whether, as he wanders along the Chiaia, his eye reposes on the smooth and quiet surface of its bay, or is elevated by the dark and lofty promontory of Misenum, or brightened by the blazing summit of Vesuvius. If he be a traveller of pleasure, at Naples his whole senses may enjoy the fullest repletion. His eye may forever move through new tracts of delightful vision, in its environs; his ear may be filled with the softest sounds of Neapolitan musick; his odour will be in the fragrant breezes from the ager Felix; and his touch will be in the sweetest state of delectation in the universal contact of the softest and purest atmosphere.

If he be a scholar, in its neighbourhood he will find himself in the fairy land of classical poetry; and the ideal regions of ancient romance will now have the visible locality of the Baian coast. He will now ascend the mountain, where Æneas piously placed the bones of his companion Misenus, after his battle with Triton.

> "At pius Æneas ingenti mole sepulchrum
> Imposuit, suaque arma viro, remumque, tubamque,
> Monte subæreo, qui nunc Misenum ab illo
> Dicitur, eternumque tenet per secula nomen."
> Virgil.

Having now seen performed the funeral rites of Misenus, he descends the promontory with Æneas, passes the temple of Apollo,* and, in order to consult the Cumœan sibyl,† enters with him her resounding cavern.

> "At pius Æneas arces, quibus altus Apollo
> Præsidet, horrendæque procul secreta sibyllæ,
> Antrum immane petit." Ib.

Having consulted the prophetess, he commences with Æneas his descent to hell, and his visitation of Elysium.

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* The walls of this temple, which stand near the entrance of the cave, are still entire.

† The cave of the sibyl is to the eastward of the lake of Avernus. It may be passed, with much difficulty, to the end where it overhangs the sea.

> "Hic locus est partes ubi se via findit in ambas,
> Dextera quæ Ditis magni sub mœnia tendit;
> Hac iter Elysium nobis. Ib.

Here he finds *il lago' d'Averno*, formerly surrounded by a deep forest, which Agrippa levelled. The poets here made the entrance of hell, as appears by Virgil.

> "Spelunca alta fuit, vastoque immanis hiatu,
> Scrupea tuta, lacu nigro nemorumque tenebris:
> ———— dixerunt nomine Avernum."
> Ib.

Having now passed through the horrours of the infernal regions, he soon enjoys the silence and beauty of the Elysian fields.

> "His demum exactis,————
> Devenere locos lœtos, et amæna vireta
> Fortunatorum nemorum, sedesque beatas.
> Largior hic campos æther et lumine vestit
> Purpureo." Ib.

But our author is above classical allusion, and, of course, is silent on these subjects of pleasant inquiry.

We shall now conclude our travelling remarks with the Pennsylvanian's description of the eternal functions of Vesuvius, and with that of Pliny the younger.

> We approached the crater, a hill of ashes and pummice stones, near enough *to bear the great pot boil*, producing a sound, that *exactly* resembled the *boiling of a cauldron*. P. 198. vol. ii.

> "Jam pumices etiam nigrique et ambusti et fracti igne lapides inciderant. Interim e Vesuvio monte pluribus locis latissimæ flammæ altaque incendia relucebant, quorum fulgor et claritas tenebris noctis excitabatur. Jam dies alibi, illic nox omnibus noctibus nigrior densiorque." *C. Plin. Tacito.*

Having now marked out a few of the sins of omission, in our author, we shall expose to view a few of his sins of commission.

There is no kind of writing, which at first thought pleases more, or in project seems easier, than that of travels; and, consequently, every man, who has travelled, thinks he has a right to become author. Most of the requisites of fine writing are, however, here necessary, from the simplest narration to the fulness and splendour of figurative description. The mind must here observe closely, and without prejudice, and we must relate with correctness and elegance. We must be correct concerning facts; and we ought to be elegant on that, which is already elegant. The book, which is now before us, is not only destitute of every such principle and rule, but exhibits to us the most ludicrous and striking carricature of the grace and dignity of a well-formed work. When the turgid answers for the sublime; modern sentimental conceit for natural and unaffected passion; and hard words for peculiar ideas, the Pennsylvanian will be thought a good writer. We subjoin a few examples of our author's style and manner to prove the impartiality of our remarks. For the clear and perspicuous the following (so crowded with light).

> An illuminated cross is suspended in the air, beneath the dome of St. Peter's; *when* the *symbolick refulgence* creates sublime effects of light and shade, glittering upon the gilded ceiling, running into obscurity in the recesses of the chapels, *dying away* in the dome, and *fading* by degrees on the sides of the nave in the *weaker and weaker* reflections of *diagonal radiation*. P. 269. v. ii.

Again.

> A brilliant orange, melting into a pea-green of the most vivid transparency, was richly irradiated from behind a ridge of mountains upon the distant horizon, empurpled with the fairy tinge of an Italian atmosphere. P. 279. vol. ii.

We cannot refrain from extracting the following sinking, *mock-heroick* sentiment.

> I *saw* the sun go down on the crumbling walls of the villa of Adrian—*and*, *at* 10 *o'clock at night*, as I sit in a large room, scantily hung with the scrawls of wandering travellers, I hear the roar of the Anio, and *my windows rattle* with a rising blast.—*It* reminds me, that I am *alone*—five thousand miles from my own fireside.—The thought is serious—it stops my *rambling pen*. P. 248. vol. ii.

But our author does not stand charged merely with having violated the laws of writing; he is still more criminal by his forgery of words. This is a crime so atrocious, that we can receive no motion for the arrest of judgment, and no petition for the extension of pardon. If the following are not words of his own formation, they are *indianisms*, with which we are not acquainted; from their length we should take them for the names of *Indian roots*. "Swamped;" "insurrectionary;" "importunacy;" "romantically;" &c.

The laughable application of the following terms brings strongly to our mind the manner of a quack's prescription. "Sinister ray;" "cubick cottages;" "transfixed waves;" "spiral protuberances;" "monotony of silence;" "hillocks of the Appenines;" "rainbow of a nave;" "inimitable taste of time."

From the advertisement of the book we should be led to think, that Mr. S. was some great political and literary personage, and that he intends again to appear to the publick in letters on England and France. But we warmly advise the Pennalvanian to retire "to the woodlands of Mr. Hamilton," his Mæcenas, where, "through the loopholes of retreat," he may see the swollen and dropsical carcass of his work heaped on the funeral pile of corrupt literature.

ART. 5.

The life of Samuel Johnson, D. D. the first president of King's college, Newyork. Containing many interesting anecdotes; a general view of the state of religion and learning in Connecticut, during the former part of the last century; and an account of the institution and rise of Yale college, Connecticut; and of King's (now Columbia) college, Newyork. By Thomas B. Chandler, D. D. formerly rector of St. John's church, Elizabethtown, N. J. To which is added, an appendix, containing many original letters to Dr. Johnson. New York. Swords, 1805. 12mo. pp. 208.

CALLIMACHUS, the learned librarian of Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, considered by all antiquity as the prince of elegiack poets, judged of a book from its size and the number of its pages according to the following rule, which he deemed infallible...that the larger a book, the more nonsense it contained. The author of the work before us, penetrated no doubt with the most perfect conviction of the truth of the opinion of Callimachus, has taken a most commendable precaution, and by making his volume of a very moderate size, discovered great deference for the opinion of the publick. We think that Dr. Chandler deserves no common praise for making the life of Dr. Johnson to consist of only one hundred and fifty-five pages, and the appendix, containing letters to Dr. Johnson from bishop Berkeley, archbishop Secker, bishop Lowth, and others, of fifty-three pages, in these *bad times*, when the literary world seems to be threatened with being overwhelmed by the number and and size of the volumes which continually issue from the press, called lives, memoirs, the correspondence, &c. &c. of men and women, boys and girls, philosophers and fools.

The object of modern biographers seems to be only to make of their heroes giants; stretching them out, to the very "crack of doom," over an insufferable number of pages. Such, in fact, has been the daring and extensive manufacture of books of this kind in England, and such the alarming and inordinate consumption of paper, that an ingenious mechanick, by the name of Neckinger, has lately erected a mill at Camberwell for the *reproduction* of this valuable article.

Dr. Samuel Johnson was born of respectable parents at Guilford, in Connecticut, the 14th October, 1696. His great-grand-father Robert, came from Kingston upon Hull, in Yorkshire, and was one of the first settlers of New-Haven, about the year 1637, and is said to have been of the same family with Johnson, the associate of Robert Brown, the father of the Brownists. Samuel Johnson, the subject of this memoir, early discovered an unconquerable desire for the acquisition of knowledge, and in his eleventh year was sent to the school at Guilford, to prepare himself for the college then at Saybrook, which he entered at fourteen, and received a degree of bachelor of arts in 1714. In the succeeding year, much discontent was excited among the scholars at the college at Saybrook, in consequence of the ignorance and total incapacity of the governours to afford them any useful instruction, and the scholars, in rapid succession, abandoned the college. Those, belonging to the towns on Connecticut river, associated under the direction of Messrs. Woodbridge and Buckingham, ministers of Hartford, who were trustees of the college, and who, desirous of obtaining a removal of the college from Saybrook to Weathersfield, in their own neighbourhood, induced Messrs. Williams and Smith to establish a collegiate school at Weathersfield, to which the young gentlemen, above alluded to, immediately resorted. Those, who belonged to the towns on the seashore, put themselves under the tuition of Mr. Johnson at Guilford. This academical schism called loudly for legislative interference, and accordingly, when the general court convened in October, 1716, an act was passed for establishing the college in New-Haven, and Mr. Johnson was unanimously chosen one of the tutors, where he resided but a short time. The disaffection of the scholars to their instructers at Saybrook, their consequent dispersion, the dissentions between the two parties at Weathersfield and New-Haven, which occasioned for some time much disturbance in the colony, and the final compromise, which ended in the peaceful establishment of the college at New-Haven, are minutely detailed by Dr. Chandler, and constitute an interesting part of the work before us.

We have thus seen, at Saybrook, the evils arising in consequence of placing boys under the direction of unskilful, inefficient instructers, the rebellion there excited, and the dissolution of the college. Even in our days we experience the mournful consequences of the insufficiency of the system of education adopted in the much boasted schools, colleges, and academies of N.England. Our school-masters, preceptors, and tutors, are too frequently incompetent to discharge their important duties, fraught with high responsibility. They are often men without manners, and without learning; who need "put no enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains;" who, with Othello's drunken lieutenant, will say, this is my right hand, and this is my left. Deeply impressed with the importance of some immediate and radical change in our system of education, particularly as it respects the instructers of the Latin and Greek languages, at our academies and colleges, we cannot, on this subject, here omit inserting the declarations of Gilbert Wakefield, whose observations apply with ten fold more force to this country, than to England; most sincerely wishing, that the opinions of a man, so distinguished for science and classical learning, may have some effect upon our men of wealth and influence, and persuade them to offer such salaries to teachers of youth as shall induce men of understanding and learning, to undertake what at best must be an ungracious task.

"I cannot but lament that inundation of dreadful evils, which are let in upon society by the tribe of unprincipled, or ineffective schoolmasters. The majority of young men, who go to college after finishing their education at school, scarcely know, with tolerable accuracy, even the first rudiments of the languages.

"Can imagination represent to herself a more melancholy case, than that of an ingenuous, enterprising youth, wasting his time and blasting his hopes, in a seminary of one of those ignorant, heedless, insipid teachers, with which the kingdom is overrun? 'I have kept my son,' said the mayor of one of the first towns in this kingdom, 'six or seven years with this fellow K——, learning Latin and Greek all this time; and, now he is come home, I find him unable to construe a prescription, or explain the inscriptions of the gallipots.' In my humble opinion this enormous usurpation of stupidity and impudence ought to be made a national concern.

"To suffer the rising generation to be thus abused beyond all recovery from any future process, what is it but to blot the *spring* from the *year?* For my own part, I look upon the generality of these preceptors as *robbers of hope* and *opportunity*, those blessings for which no compensation can be made. I cherish liberty, I think, with a warmth of attachment inferiour to no man; but I should rejoice to see, I confess, some restrictions in the case before us. Men of acknowledged qualifications should be appointed to examine, with a scrupulous and conscientious accuracy, the competency of all those who undertake the teaching of the learned languages; and none should be allowed to exercise this arduous office, but those who could endure the *fiery trial.* Society would be benefited beyond measure, and no real injury be done to the individual. Men should *learn*, or be *taught*, the knowledge of themselves; nor should he aspire to adorn the mind, who is fit only to *trim a periwig*; or, in the vain attempt of acquiring science, leave uncultivated the capabilities of a commendable *shoemaker.*

All quit their sphere, and rush into the skies."

In March, 1720, Mr. Johnson was ordained as a congregational minister at West-Haven, in the twenty-fourth year of his age. From early life, even while at college, he had been opposed to extempore prayer. He had also an early dislike to the independent or congregational form of church government. In the prosecution of his studies, he very soon began to doubt the validity of presbyterian ordination, avowed his perfect conversion to episcopacy, and declared that he could find no way of reconciling his conscience, while he neglected the practices of the ancient church. He accordingly took an affectionate farewel of his people at West-Haven, and proceeded to Boston, in company with Messrs. Cutler and Brown, the former president, and the latter tutor, of New-Haven college; both of whom had also been converted to episcopacy, proposing to embark for England to obtain holy orders in the church, where they arrived on the 15th of December, 1722; whence they immediately proceeded to London, and were politely received by Dr. Robinson, the bishop of London, and the society for propagating the gospel. Mr. Cutler was ordained to take charge of the new church in Boston, and Mr. Johnson to take care of the church at Stratford in Connecticut. The former also received from the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge the honours of a degree of Dr. in divinity, and Mr. Johnson of master of arts. Having taken leave of their friends, they embarked for America in July, 1723, and Mr. Johnson arrived at Stratford to take charge of his little flock, consisting of about twenty families, by whom he was joyfully received.

Mr. Johnson's conversion to the episcopal church; the particular books which he read, which assisted to promote that conversion; the commotion that in consequence was excited in the colony of Connecticut; the conference with the trustees of the college, and Govornour Saltonstall, &c. &c. are all amply detailed by Dr. Chandler, and include many traits, which must afford interest and amusement to the lovers of ecclesiastical history.

In the month of February, 1729, Dr. Berkeley, then dean of Derry in Ireland, arrived in America, and resided two years and an half in Rhode-Island. "As his coming to America, (says Dr. Chandler) had an important effect upon the religion and learning of the country; and as Dr. Johnson always considered the period in which bishop Berkeley resided in this country as one of the most interesting periods of his life, it may not be amiss to give a more particular account of that extraordinary person, and of the business that brought him hither, than has probably been laid before the *American* reader in one view."

On comparing the sketch of the life of Bishop Berkeley in the work before us, with the life in Dr. Aikin's general biography, we find it to be generally correct, though the latter is more full and satisfactory; but wherever we are made acquainted with the life of this celebrated gentleman and scholar, we are most profoundly impressed with the highest admiration of the disinterestedness of his character, of his learning, his christian charity, his discernment, and patriotism.

At the period of Mr. Johnson's conversion to episcopacy, the church of England had scarcely any existence in Connecticut. There were thirty families at Stratford, chiefly from England, under the care of Mr. Pigot, the intimate friend of Dr. Johnson, and who no doubt was very instrumental in producing his conversion. Mr. Johnson, while minister at Stratford, frequently made excursions into the neighboring towns, and preached with peculiar success; the episcopal church making very visible progress in Connecticut; and in the year 1736, upon inquiry, there were found to be no less than seven hundred families in the colony. Great acquisitions were afterwards made to the church by the wild enthusiasm introduced by Mr. Whitfield, and propagated by his followers. Mr. Johnson published tracts, in defence of the church, which involved him in much controversy, particularly with Mr. Dickenson of Elizabethtown, in New-Jersey, and Mr. Foxcroft of Boston. These controversies reach down to 1736, and are detailed at much length by Dr. Chandler. These publications were much approved of in England, and obtained for Mr. Johnson, in 1743, *from the university of Oxford a degree of Doctor in divinity.*

Dr. Johnson had two sons, who were educated at Yale college, for whom he composed a compendium of logick, including metaphysicks, and another of ethicks, for their better instruction in these studies; which were printed together, in an octavo volume by Dr. Franklin, for the use of the college in that city, then about to be erected, and of which Mr. Franklin was one of the most active promoters.

In 1754 the trustees of New-York college unanimously elected Dr. Johnson president, who accepted, but with great reluctance. For the history of the establishment of the college, in the city of New-York, whose charter was granted in October, 1754; the violent opposition which arose among the trustees, respecting what denomination of christians should predominate in the government and immediate direction of the college; the violent clamour in consequence excited in the province and legislature of New-York; the vigorous exertions made by Mr. Johnson to promote the interests of the seminary; the benefactions it received, &c. &c. we refer our readers to the work itself.

In 1763 Dr. Johnson resigned the office of president, and went to his peaceful retreat at Stratford, where he passed the remainder of his days; not however in inglorious ease. He resumed the charge of his old mission, and was again kindly received by the people of Stratford in character of their minister, in 1764, upwards of forty years after he had first entered into this relation with them. He entered into the controversy between the Rev. Mr. Apthorp and Dr. Mayhew, on the subject of an American episcopate, and wrote a short vindication of the society for propagating the gospel. "On the morning of January 6, 1722, the most glorious epiphany he ever beheld, he conversed with his family on the subject of his own death, with the greatest cheerfulness and serenity. He expressed his wishes that he might resemble, in the manner of his death, his good friend the bishop Berkeley, whom he had greatly loved, and whose exit he had ever esteemed happy. Heaven granted his wish; for soon after he had uttered these words, like the good bishop, he instantaneously expired in his chair, without the least struggle or groan; so that he may rather be said to have been changed or translated, than to have died." Two days after, his remains were interred in the chancel of Christ church, Stratford, where a handsome monument has been erected to his memory.

Thus lived, and thus died, a man, the narrative of whose life involves much interesting anecdote; who was respectable for his understanding and his learning, and still more pre-eminent for suavity of manners, and the benevolence of his heart. The great Racine, the father of the French drama, after having exalted the glory of his genius to the utmost limits allotted to humanity, regretted, at the age of thirty-eight years, that he had done every thing for the world, and nothing for his God. Cæsar, at the same age, lamented, on the tomb of Alexander, that he had yet done nothing to secure to himself durable renown. This passion for human glory conducted the conqueror of Pompey to actions which should be disdained by a noble heart, and it was, on the contrary, at an advanced age, by contempt of glory, that the author of Andromaque elevated Racine above himself. Very different from these men was the character of Dr. Johnson. His whole life was active, vigilant, and efficient in the service of his Maker; in magnifying the holy office of a clergyman; in reclaiming the vicious; in quickening, to a sense of their duty, the negligent and careless; in influencing the ignorant; in strengthening and confirming the serious and religious; in visiting the sick, feeding the hungry, and cloathing the naked. Private virtues are the more sublime, as they do not aspire to the approbation of others, but only to the testimony of one's own conscience; and the conscience of a good man is of more value to himself, than the praises of the universe.

As we have already protracted our review to an immoderate length, we will only give the following extract from our author as a favourable specimen of his style and manner.

While the Dean reſided at *Rhode-Iſland*, he compoſed his *Alciphron*, or *Minute Philoſopher*; written by way of dialogue, in the manner of PLATO. The deſign of it was to vindicate the Chriſtian religion, in anſwer to the various objections and cavils of atheiſts, libertines, enthuſiaſts, ſcorners, criticks, metaphyſicians, fataliſts, and *ſcepticks*. In the *advertiſement* prefixed to theſe dialogues, the author affirms, that he was "well aſſured one of the moſt noted writers againſt Chriſtianity had declared, he had found out a *demonſtration* againſt the being of a God." Mr. JOHNSON, in one of his viſits to the Dean, converſing with him on the ſubject of the work then in hand, was more particularly informed by him—that he himſelf (the Dean) had heard this ſtrange declaration, while he was preſent in one of the *deiſtical clubs*, in the pretended character of a learner—that COLLINS was the man who made it—and that the *demonſtration* was what he afterwards publiſhed, in an attempt to prove that every action is *the effect of fate and neceſſity*, in his book entitled, *A Philoſophical Inquiry concerning Human Liberty*. And, indeed, could the point be once eſtabliſhed, that every thing is produced by fate and neceſſity, it would naturally follow, that there is no God, or that he is a very uſeleſs and inſignificant being, which amounts to the ſame thing. As this ſtrange anecdote deſerves to be more generally known, a place is given it in this memoir.

When the Dean was about leaving *America*, Mr. JOHNSON made him his final viſit. As he retained a ſtrong affection for *Yale College*, the ſeminary in which he was educated, and with which he had been otherwiſe connected, he took the liberty, on this occaſion, to recommend it to the Dean's notice; hoping that he might think proper to ſend it ſome books, and not expecting, or aiming at any thing further. But within two years from that time, Dr. BERKELEY, aſſiſted by ſeveral gentlemen who had ſubſcribed money for his intended college at *Bermuda*, ſent over a valuable collection of books, as a preſent to *Yale College*. It amounted, including what he had given before, to near *one thouſand* volumes, of which *two hundred* and *ſixty* were in folio, and very large. The coſt of this collection could have been little leſs than *five hundred pounds ſterling*. At or about the ſame time he tranſmitted to Mr. JOHNSON a deed, in which he conveyed to that college his farm in *Rhode-Iſland*, conſiſting of ninety ſix acres. The annual intereſt of it was to be divided between three bachelors of arts, who, upon examination by the rector of the college, and a miniſter of the Church of England, ſhould appear to be the beſt *claſſical ſcholars*; provided they would reſide at college the three years between their bachelor's and maſter's degrees, in the proſecution of their ſtudies; and the forfeitures, in caſe of non-reſidence, were to be given in premiums of books, to thoſe that performed the beſt exerciſes.

ART. 6.

The first settlers of Virginia, an historical novel, exhibiting a view of the rise and progress of the colony at James Town, a picture of Indian manners, the countenance of the country, and its natural productions. The second edition, considerably enlarged. New-York. Printed for I. Riley & Co. 1806. *pp.* 284.

NOVELS, which are founded on historical incidents, are little adapted to interest the attention and affect the imagination, from the recollection, which will intrude into the mind, of the real extent of the facts, and the consequent conviction, which will be induced, that the rest is fiction. But any one, who is acquainted with the early history of Virginia, will not only feel this embarrassment, while reading the novel before us, but will often be disappointed by the recollection of having before read the same events, narrated in precisely the same language.

In a historical novel we look for historical facts, as the basis of the story; but we know not by what right an author avails himself of the labours of others in this more than in any other kind of composition, without acknowledging his obligations. Near the close of his book, Mr. Davis [*] refers his readers to Smith, Purchas, and others. How far he is indebted to them, not only for incidents, but for paragraphs and pages, we cannot assert; but by the evidences of plagiarism, which we will adduce, we cannot repress the suspicion, that it is greater than we can prove. We will present our readers with a few extracts from the life of Smith, in Belknap's "American Biography," and direct them to the pages of "The first settlers of Virginia," in which they are generally copied *verbatim*.

"Proceeding up the river, another company of Indians appeared in arms. Their chief, Apamatica, holding in one hand his bow and arrow, and in the other a pipe of tobacco, demanded the cauſe of their coming; they made ſigns of peace, and were hoſpitably received." *Amer. Biog. p.* 255.—*Firſt Settlers. p.* 19.

The paragraph following this in the novel is a little varied from the Biography.

"They proceeded down the river to Kecoughtan, where the natives, knowing the needy state of the colony, treated them with contempt, offering an ear of corn in exchange for a muſket, or a ſword." *Amer. Biog. p.* 261.—*Firſt Settlers, p.* 21.

The five paragraphs which succed this in the novel, are a little varied from the Biography.

Compare p. 265 of the Biography, "The Indians astonished," &c. with pages 26, and 27 of the novel.

"Powhatan then ſets ſuch a price on his corn, that not more than four buſhels could be procured; and the neceſſary ſupplies could not have been had, if Smith's genius, ever ready at invention, had not hit on an artifice which proved ſucceſsful. We had ſecreted ſome trifles, and among them a parcel of *blue beads*;

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[*] We learn the name of the author from the extracts from reviews, and from the letters prefixed to the novel.

which, ſeemingly in a careleſs way, he glanced in the eyes of Powhatan. The bait caught him, and he earneſtly deſired to purchaſe them. Smith, in his turn, raiſed the value of them, extolling them as the moſt precious jewels, reſembling the colour of the ſky, and proper only for the nobleſt ſovereigns of the univerſe. Powhatan's imagination was all on fire; he made large offers. Smith inſiſted on more, and at length ſuffered himſelf to be perſuaded to take between two and three hundred buſhels of corn, for about two pounds of blue beads."—*Amer. Biog. pp.* 274–5. *Firſt Settlers. pp.* 62–3.

"Having finiſhed the neceſſary buſineſs of the ſeaſon, and diſpatched the ſhip, another voyage of diſcovery was undertaken by Capt. Smith and fourteen others. They went down the river in an open barge, in company with the ſhip, and having parted with her at Cape Henry, they croſſed the mouth of the bay, and fell in with a cluſter of iſlands without Cape Charles, to which they gave the name of Smith's Iſles, which they ſtill bear." *Biog. p.* 277. *Firſt Settlers, p.* 63.

"Smith having ſtuck his ſword into a ſtingray, the fiſh raiſed its tail, and with its ſharp indented thorn, wounded him in the arm. The wound was extremely painful, and he preſently ſwelled to that degree, that they expected him to die, and he himſelf gave them orders to bury him on a neighbouring iſland. But the ſurgeon ſo allayed the anguiſh and ſwelling, that Smith was able to eat part of the fiſh for his ſupper. From this occurrence, the place was diſtinguiſhed by the name of Stingray-Point, which it ſtill bears." *Biog. pp.* 279–80. *Firſt Settlers, p.* 65.

"All things being prepared for the ceremony of coronation, the preſent was brought from the boats; the baſon and ewer were depoſited, the bed and chair were ſet up, the ſcarlet ſuit and cloak were put on, though not till Namontac had aſſured him that theſe habiliments would do him no harm; but they had great difficulty in perſuading him to receive the crown, nor would he bend his knee, or incline his head in the leaſt degree. After many attempts, and with actual preſſing on his ſhoulders, they at laſt made him ſtoop a little, and put it on. Inſtantly, a ſignal being given, the men in the boats fired a volley, at which the monarch ſtarted with horrour, imagining that a deſign was forming to deſtroy him in the ſummit of his glory; but being aſſured that it was meant as a compliment, his fear ſubſided, and in return for the baubles of royalty received from King James, he deſired Newport to preſent him his old fur mantle and deer ſkin ſhoes." *Biog. pp.* 286–7. *Firſt Settlers, pp.* 74–5.

"The ſupplies procured by trading being inſufficient, and hunger very preſſing, Smith ventured on the dangerous project of ſurpriſing Powhatan, and carrying off his whole ſtock of proviſions. This Indian prince had formed a ſimilar deſign reſpecting Smith; and for the purpoſe of betraying him, had invited him to his ſeat, promiſing that if he would ſend men to build him a houſe, after the Engliſh mode, and give him ſome guns and ſwords, copper and beads, he would load his boat with corn." *Biog. p.* 292. *Firſt Settlers, p.* 77.

But excepting the sentiments excited by observing so many unaccountable instances of unacknowledged transcription, we confess that we have perused this novel with pleasure. Many parts of it, for which we are exclusively indebted to Mr. Davis, are highly ingenious; and if he had added a few prefatory remarks expressing his frequent obligations to others, not only for incidents, but for many of the paragraphs, in which they are narrated, we might, with the exception of a few passages, have given it our entire approbation.

To the novel is affixed a pompous "memoir of the author," the perusal of which has probably furnished to him far higher gratification, than it will give to any of its readers.

We cannot quote any part of the story, but in justice to Mr. Davis, and to give our readers a specimen of his style, we will subjoin a few extracts, which will lose nothing in being detached from the work.

The party encamped, at evening, round a cypreſs, which invited them to repoſe, after the fatigue of their march. The cypreſs is in the firſt order of American trees. Its majeſtick ſtature, the ſtatelineſs of its trunk, lifting its cumbrous branches towards the ſkies, the delicacy of its colour, and the texture of its leaves, fill the mind with mingled emotions of pleaſure and of awe. From its mighty branches hang ſtreamers of long moſs, which float in the wind; and on its lofty top the eagle builds his neſt, and the ſtork finds a reſting place. *p.* 53.

The mocking-bird is the ſweeteſt choriſter of the feathered race, without excepting even the nightingale. While it poſſeſſes the power of imitating the notes of other birds, it equals that charming ſongſter in the peculiar melody of its own ſtrain.

But the mocking bird mingles action with its ſong, and its meaſured movements accompany and expreſs the ſucceſſion of its emotions. Its prelude is to riſe ſlowly, with expanded wings, and ſoon ſink back to the ſame ſpot, its head hanging downwards. Its action now correſponds with the varied nature of its muſick. If the notes are briſk and lively, it deſcribes in the air a number of circles, croſſing each other; or it aſcends and deſcends continually in a ſpiral line. If they are loud and rapid, it with equal briſkneſs flaps its wings. Is its ſong unequal? It flutters, it bounds. Do its tones ſoften by degrees, melt into tender ſtrains, and die away in a pauſe, more charming than the ſweeteſt muſick? It gently diminiſhes its action, glides ſmoothly above its reſting place, till the wavings of its wings begin to be imperceptible, at laſt ceaſe, and the bird remains ſuſpended and motionleſs in the air." *pp.* 54-5.

ART. 7.

A sermon preached in Providence, at the ordination of Rev. Henry Edes, A. M. July 17, A. D. 1805, By John Eliot, D. D. pastor of the New North Church. Boston.

> Ubi autem sapientia cum religione inseparabili nexu cohaeret, utrumque verum esse necesse est; quia et in colendo sapere debemus, id est scire, quid nobis et quomodo sit colendum, et in sapiendo colere, id est re et actu, quod scierimus, implere.
>
> *Lact. de vera sapient. cap.* 3.

Providence. Carter. *pp.* 40.

ORDINATION discourses seldom fail to interest the hearers for whose particular benefit they are intended. The occasion naturally leads them to recur to past scenes, to recollect past instructions, and to view with anxiety and hope their opening prospects. There is indeed a combination of circumstances favourable to both the eloquence of the speaker and the feelings of the auditory. The sermon, however, which is the subject of our present remarks, independently of time, place, and incident, is an excellent performance. It is judicious and appropriate; rich in sentiment; brilliant in remark; serious and evangelical. Yet it is not faultless. The learning of its author is sometimes unnecessarily displayed. Its method is not, as it ought to be, so lucid, as to be plainly perceived by the careful hearer without the aid of either promise or recapitulation. Its transitions are not easy; its wit is obnoxious to misapprehension, and therefore may possibly exasperate: and some of its similies are so confused and so trite, as to serve neither for illustration nor embellishment; for then only, when sparingly and aptly used, are rhetorical figures "like apples of gold in baskets of silver."

The sermon is founded on Luke x. 18. After some general remarks, explanatory of the text, Dr. E. traces the progress of christianity in the world. He then ably describes the duty of its preachers, and indicates the various means by which their mission may be most successfully accomplished. With pointed satire and with holy zeal he combats the sneers and doubtings of the unbeliever on the one hand; and on the other he forcibly descants upon the injuries, which pure christianity sustains from the false fervours of ignorant and fanatical exhorters, who mar the beauty of religion, who clothe that angel of peace in a demon's dress, and under the pretence of piety seek only a support in their idleness, and a cloak for those disorders of which they are the occasion. After exposing these opposite evils, and showing them to be extremely injurious to the progress of undefiled religion, he concludes with the usual addresses to the candidate and the church. To the first he is affectionate, to the last respectful.

The charge by Rev. Dr. Lathrop is paternal and instructive; and the right hand of fellowship by Rev. Dr. Kirkland contains hints on the exercise and display of christian charity, on which christians of every name would do well to meditate.

ART. 8.

A discourse, delivered at Springfield, Oct. 30, 1805. *On occasion of the completion and opening of the great bridge over Connecticut river, between the towns of Springfield and West-Springfield. By Joseph Lathrop,* D. D. *pastor of the church in West-Springfield. 2d edition.* Springfield, (Mas.) H. Brewer. *pp.* 16.

The first object of this discourse is to exhibit the wisdom and benevolence of God in adapting the earth to the habitance of men. The author then shows it to have been the design of the Deity, notwithstanding what is done for us, that we should do something for ourselves. He lastly very happily uses the occasion for suggesting several reflexions of immense importance. He refreshes the mind with proofs of God's existence. He displays the nature and duties of civil society. He shows the superiority of civilized to savage life. He remarks upon the necessity of subordination, labour, and union in a community, and of a firm and steady government to the prosperity of a people. He speaks of the advantages of divine revelation, and closes with a striking summary of the a priori arguments in favour of a future state.

Dr. Lathrop is a writer who is always filled with his subject, and who gives to every subject he touches a high degree of interest. His style is simple, perspicuous, and forcible. He communicates much matter in an easy manner, and performs more than he promises. We regret that so good a sermon, as the one we have described, should not be impressed on better paper and with a better type, and that its punctuation and orthography should be sadly imperfect.

ART. 9.

A discourse delivered before the members of the Boston Female Asylum, Sept. 20, 1805, *being their fifth anniversary. By William Emerson, minister of the first church in Boston.* Russell & Cutler. 1805. *pp.* 30. Text. Matt. xxiv. 13.

This discourse is introduced by a text, which is perhaps more appropriate to the circumstances of this charitable institution, than any other in the whole compass of the sacred writings. The delicacy and elegance of the compliment it conveys must have been peculiarly grateful to the members of this society, and have excited a degree of expectation, which, we dare to say, was not disappointed in the progress of the discourse. The connexion of the text is well illustrated and applied ; the observations follow from it without labour or constraint.

Though the Female Asylum has been generally approved, still there are some benevolent and judicious men, who have been doubtful of its ultimate tendency, and have therefore been less unreserved in their commendations, than our author. We do not say that he has been immoderate in its praise ; but we suggest to his consideration, whether he has not expressed himself with too little caution, when he compares to the avarice and envy of Judas the motives of those persons "who may persist in condemning the design of this institution ?" The friends of the Asylum, however, have found in the preacher an eloquent advocate, and, but for the exceptions just mentioned, an enemy might almost be made a convert.

The word "reciprocity" is hardly admissible, and the phrase "empyrean heavens" is rather above the heads of common audiences.

We extract the following specimen of the writer's style and manner.

> The ſubject alſo ſuggeſts a fine leſſon on the effect of commendation. How ſweet is the voice of praiſe ! It is neceſſary to the young, it is exhilirating to the old. There is none ſo high as to be above, and none ſo low as to be beneath its influence. To repoſe under the ſhade of the laurel, we ſee the ſtudent waſting his conſtitution before the lamp, the ſtateſman denying himſelf eaſe, and the victorious general braving death in a thouſand forms. Let us however diſtinguiſh the applauſe of the fickle multitude from the calm approbation of the wiſe and good. The firſt is unworthy the purſuit of man or woman, the laſt is an ornament of grace, of which the moſt modeſt chriſtian is permitted to be fond ; it is a crown of glory, which the humbleſt chriſtian may be proud to wear. This alone is genuine honour ; it is the natural and well ripe fruit of genuine worth. It is ſometimes in poſſeſſion of the humble cottager, as well as of him who figures in the walks of publick life. This is that *good name which is better than precious ointment, and rather to be choſen than great riches.* To a perſon conſcious of merit, whoſe actions are guided by wiſdom, and terminate in private happineſs, publick utility, and the honour of religion, how grateful the commendation of a diſcerning friend ! It is like the precious ointment, which was wont to moiſten the head of the Hebrew prieſt, and to perfume his ſacerdotal veſtments. Or it may be likened to the dews, which copiouſly deſcended on the hills of Hermon, quickening the progreſs of vegetation, and clothing them with luxuriance and beauty. It is at once the ſtimulus and the reward of beneficence. And it is a reward which we cannot, without doing violence to the beſt feelings of the heart, refrain from beſtowing. As like begets like, love begets love. It is impoſſible to behold a high degree of natural beauty, and be ſilent in its praiſe. It is equally impoſſible to witneſs an act of ſincere generoſity, and not feel a ſentiment of complacence for the agent. It is immaterial whether the action be done for our advantage, or that of our neighbour. Jeſus would have commended a ſimilar action in Mary performed for any other man ; and he would have praiſed the ſame deed performed for him by any other woman. What a beautiful encomium is here paid by our maſter to his worthy friend ! Who will henceforth doubt if love of honour, within moderate limits, may be juſtified ? It is manifeſt that Chriſt here ſanctifies a deſire of glory, and conſecrates it to the practice of virtue. *Verily I ſay unto you, wherever this goſpel ſhall be preached throughout the whole world, there ſhall alſo this, that this woman hath done, be told for a memorial of her.* Bleſſed Jeſus ! We this day help to make thee a true prophet. In theſe ends of the earth we verify thy words. Yes, thou excellent woman, who anointedſt with precious ointment the holy ſaviour of the world, at the diſtance of eighteen centuries from thy death, we publiſh thy beneficence with joy and gratitude. Though no ſtatue is erected to thy fame, thy bounty ſhall yet be had in everlaſting remembrance ; without the aid of braſs,

thy character will every where be dear. Wherever the goſpel of our ſalvation ſhall be made known ; wherever it ſhall carry peace to the turbulent, and light to thoſe in darkneſs ; wherever it ſhall offer pardon to the penitent, and immortality to the good, there ſhall thy lovely name be more fragrant than the perfumes, and thy memory precious as that of the juſt !

ART. 9.

A sermon, preached at the ordination of Rev. Charles Lowell to the pastoral care of the west church and congregation in Boston, Jan. 1, 1806. By Eliphalet Porter, pastor of the first church in Roxbury. Annexed are *The charge, by Professor Ware ; and right hand of fellowship, by Mr. Buckminster.* Boston : Belcher & Armstrong.

The chief entertainment of an ordination sermon is to be found in the addresses at the close. The preceding matter resembles the half hour, which is spent in the drawing room before dinner : it is irksome ; but a good-natured and civil man, if he does not attend to it with delight, will endure it with patience, sensible that a half hour, " though it may be tedious, cannot be long," and that the feast, which is to follow, will compensate him for his mental fatigue. Mr. Porter is an entertainer who deserves our thanks ; for whilst he has interested and pleased us in the conclusion of his discourse, he is neither long nor dull in the introductory part. His text is, " Sanctify them through thy truth ; thy word is truth ;" and the two divisions of his subject are, " 1. It is by means of truth, that God sanctifies mankind. 2. The word of God is the truth, by which this important purpose is effected." The three extracts which follow are favourable specimens of his manner.

> I will not assert, that, the knowledge of the truth and the practice of righteousness are inseparably connected ; and much less, that the latter is always in exact proportion to the former. But it is a fact, which I believe will not be denied, that they have been associated in a manner, which could not have been the result of accident. A history of the progress and state of religious knowledge, in the various ages and countries of the world, would be found a valuable index of their state of moral improvement.
>
> To search the scriptures, in order to acquaint ourselves with their meaning, is our indispensable duty. When we engage in this employment, we must take with us our reason and conscience. These are essential to our understanding the written word of God. Without their light and aid, we cannot proceed a step in interpreting the sacred scriptures ; but shall be led into errour and absurdity, by the first metaphor, or figurative expression that occurs.
>
> The successor of a Mayhew and a Howard ought not to content himself with low attainments in knowledge and goodness. This flock have been accustomed to substantial food, and must not be fed with chaff. They will require knowledge and understanding ; or in other words, doctrines and precepts, founded on plain scripture and common sense.

The charge, by Professor Ware, is such as we should expect from the decent and correct mind of its author. It is destitute of ornament, and contains little novelty. But as ornament would be misplaced in an authoritative exhortation, and novelty could not be obtained, without deviating from the model which St. Paul has given, these circumstances, we think, entitle it, not to censure, but praise. In the following passage, Mr. Ware, without insisting on any doubtful qualifications, points out, in concise terms, the endowments, which a candidate for ordination ought to possess. We give it as a specimen, not only of his style, but of his moderation and good sense.

The miniſtry, which you have received yourſelf, you will be careful alſo to commit, as you ſhall be called in providence to that ſervice, only to faithful men, who give ſatisfactory evidence of a ſound underſtanding, of competent knowledge, of pure morals, of unqueſtionable piety, and of unblemiſhed reputation.

The right hand of fellowship, by Mr. Buckminster, is the splendid performance of a young man of genius. The following simile was received by the auditory with a murmur of applause ; and we doubt not it will afford a high gratification to the reader.

Is there not, amidſt all the varieties of diſcipline and faith, enough left us in common to preſerve a unity of ſpirit ? What though the globes, which compoſe our planetary ſyſtem, are at ſometimes nearer than at others, both to one another and to the ſun, now croſſing one another's path, now eclipſing one another's light, and even ſometimes appearing to our ſhort-ſighted viſion to have wandered irrecoverably, and to have gone off into boundleſs ſpace ; yet do we not know that they are ſtill reached by ſome genial beams of the central light, and continue, in their wideſt aberrations, to gravitate to the ſame point in the ſyſtem ? And may we not believe that the great head of the church has always diſpenſed, through the numerous ſocieties of chriſtendom, a portion of the healing influences of his religion ; has held them inviſibly together, when they have appeared to be ruſhing fartheſt aſunder ; and through all the order and confuſion, conjunction and oppoſition, progreſs and decline of churches, has kept alive in every communion a ſupreme regard to his authority, when clearly known, as a common principle of relation to him and to one another ?

In the extract which follows, Mr. B. has, with a few masterly strokes, drawn the true characters of the great Mayhew, and the virtuous Howard.

Surely the deſk, where ſuch men as Mayhew and Howard have ſtood, is privileged above the common *walks* of publick inſtruction.—Of Mayhew we have heard and read only, but enough to know, that poſterity will hear and read of him alſo. They will be curious to learn more of that intrepid ſpirit, which nothing could depreſs ; of that vigorous underſtanding, which broke ſo eaſily the little meſhes which were ſpread to entangle it. However they may heſitate to follow him in all his ſpeculations, they will never heſitate to admire his noble attachment to his country, its liberties, its churches, and its literature ; they will not be intereſted to depreciate the independence of his virtue, the manlineſs of his piety, and the undiſſembled love for the cauſe of his Redeemer. Howard we have ſeen ; and who that has ſeen him has forgotten the patriarchal ſimplicity of his character, united with a tenderneſs, which would have been admired even in a brother ? Who that knew him is not eager now to aſſure us, that he had ingrafted the moſt ſublime virtues and honourable accompliſhments of his predeceſſor on the ſound and uncorrupted ſtock of his own integrity ?

In the last extract we have marked a word, which appears to us to be incorrectly employed. As Mayhew and Howard only *stood* in the pulpit, other publick instructers ought not, in the same sentence, to have *walks* assigned to them.

ART. 10.

A discourse delivered at the request of the American revolution society, before that society, and the state society of the Cincinnati, on the death of Gen. Christopher Gadsden, Sept. 10, 1805. By Nathaniel Bowen, A. M. rector of St. Michael's, and member of the American revolution society. Published at the request of the two societies. Charleston. W. P. Young. *pp.* 22.

THERE are various defects in this discourse. The style is too inverted. In the composition of the sentences, there are too many members and useless adjectives. Two or three instances of bad grammar are discoverable. The relatives, *that* and *which*, are too often elliptically omitted, and the former is sometimes used, when the latter should have been preferred, both on account of perspicuity and euphony. We are willing to believe any thing commendatory of Gen. Gadsden, but the generality of readers would have been more pleased with a biographical narration, than loose eulogy in the body of the discourse, and disjointed historical facts in the notes. From the present work the future historian can glean nothing; and no funeral orator of an illustrious statesman or renowned commander will consider it as a model for eloquence or encomium.

ART. 11.

A supplement to Johnson's English Dictionary. By George Mason. Re-printed from the London Quarto edition. New York, for I. Riley & Co. 8*vo.*

MR. Mason has unquestionably produced a very useful work, which we recommend to all the proprietors of Johnson's dictionary. We are sorry to find in his preface, that he has treated the great luminary of his age with disrespect, and, we believe, with injustice. He talks of *his inaccuracies, of his various inconsistencies with himself, of his want of diligence, of the narrowness of his intelligence, of his mistakes, of his negligence, and deficiency, of his highly ridiculous observations.*

The dictionary of Johnson is a stupendous work, considered as the production of one man; and has been regarded by the best judges, as superiour to the French lexicon of the forty academicians. According to Garrick's compliment,

> *He has beat forty French, and will*
> *beat forty more.*

The genius of Johnson ought not to have been degraded to the mechanical drudgery of such a work, though no man living could have executed it so well. It was Hercules cleansing the Augean stables, the most arduous, and least glorious of his labours. The task of Mr. Mason was comparatively easy. He had only to pick up what might have dropped or been overlooked by the labouring hero. The task was performed by the removal of the filth. Nothing remained for Mr. Mason but the light labours of the broom. Mr. Mason, in his attack on the Doctor, reminds us of Shakespeare's "flea on the lip of a lion."

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

Of New Publications in the U. States, for February, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

☞ *We cannot too often repeat ſolicitations to authors, printers, and bookſellers in the different parts of the United States to ſend us by the earlieſt opportunities (poſt paid) notices of all books which they have lately publiſhed, or which they intend to publiſh. The liſt of new publications contained in the Anthology is the only liſt within our knowledge publiſhed in the United States; and conſequently the only one that can be uſeful to the publick for purpoſes of general reference. If authors and publiſhers will therefore conſent to communicate, not only notices, but a copy of all their publications, ſuch uſe might be made of them as would promote, what all unite in ardently wiſhing, the general intereſt of American literature, and the more extenſive circulation of books.*

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The Chriſtian Monitor, a religious periodical work, by "a ſociety for promoting chriſtian knowledge, piety, and charity." No. 1. Containing prayers, meditations, &c. for the uſe of various claſſes of perſons, particularly young heads of families. 12mo. pp. 192. Price in boards 80 cents. Boſton, Munroe & Francis. 1806.

The Life of Admiral Lord Nelſon; containing a correct account of all his naval engagements, and univerſally lamented death in the hour of victory. Embelliſhed with an engraved frontiſpiece; deſcriptive of the attack of the fleets off Trafalgar. 25 cts. Philadelphia, John Watts.

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The American Moraliſt; containing a number of moral and religious leſſons, together with humorous and entertaining pieces; deſigned for the uſe of ſchools. 12 mo. 37½ cents. 3,50 per doz. Worceſter, Thomas, jun.

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The Literary Miſcellany, No. 3, of Vol. II. For January, 1806. Cambridge, William Hilliard. 8vo. pp 108.

The firſt number of The Medical and Agricultural Regiſter, deſigned for the uſe of families. 8vo. pp. 16. Publiſhed monthly, price 1 dol. per ann. Boſton, Manning & Loring.

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A new muſical work, entitled The Harmonick Magazine. To be publiſhed in numbers, ſemi-monthly, and to contain ſelections from the compoſitions of the moſt celebrated muſicians in Europe, together with American original compoſitions. Each number to contain 32 pages quarto. A title page and index to be given with the volume. Price 3 dollars per annum, or 50 cents per number. Salem, Maſſa. S. Holyoke, publiſher.

INTELLIGENCE.

A beautiful *Stereotype Prayer-Book*, in double columns, 12mo., with large face minion letter, on 264 plates, was publiſhed by the Univerſity of Cambridge, Eng. July 8; and ſince then an 8vo. Engliſh Teſtament in long primer. Theſe are the firſt fruits, we truſt, of many excellent productions of this kind, which may be expected to proceed from that preſs. We are happy to hear, that the Univerſity of Oxford has adopted the ſame plan of printing; and that preparations are now making there to begin a new octavo edition of the Welſh Bible in Stereotype, of which the Society for promoting Chriſtian Knowledge has engaged twenty thouſand copies. A Stereotype Pocket Bible, in Welſh, of twenty thouſand copies, had been previouſly undertaken for the Britiſh and Foreign Bible Society, by the Univerſity of Cambridge.

The Bookſellers have agreed to reprint *Dr. Johnſon's Engliſh Poets*, with the addition of *Chaucer*, *Spenſer*, and the other early poets, as well as the moſt eminent of thoſe poets who have died ſince *Mr. Johnſon's* ſeries cloſed. The whole will form a complete body of Engliſh poetry. The early poets will be collected, and the additional lives written by *Mr. Alexander Chalmers.*

A new edition of *Dr. Johnſon's* works, being the fourth ſince his death, is alſo in the preſs, and will appear in the early part of the winter. This has ſome additions and illuſtrative notes.

It is in the department of ancient claſſicks, that the emulation of the German literati appears chiefly to be ſtimulated. Many have come forth from the ſchool of *Heyne*. The edition of *Homer's Iliad*, by Profeſſor Wolf, who prefixed an elaborate collection of proofs, deduced from internal and external circumſtances, that *all* the poems aſcribed to Homer were not written by the ſame hand, has excited great attention in France, where it has been oppoſed by the learned Reviewer of the hiſtorians of Alexander the Great.

The doubts which have been ſtarted in England, on the authenticity of the four celebrated orations ſuppoſed to have been delivered by Cicero after his return from exile, and which had been refuted by Geſner in his lectures before the Royal Society at Göttingen, from 1753 to 1759, were revived by Mr. Wolf, who reprinted, in 1801, the arguments on both ſides of the queſtion, with his objections to thoſe of Geſner, and intimations that the authencity of another famous oration of Cicero might be diſputed. Accordingly, in the following year, he printed the oration *pro Marcello*, with an introduction, and commentary, maintaining it to be ſpurious. Theſe eſſays, which we apprehend to have been merely ſportive, threw the publick cenſors of literature into no ſmall perplexity and conſternation; and they ſeem to have thought Wolf, like Antæus, to be invincible on the ſoil from which he ſprung, At length, Wormius ventured to encounter him on Daniſh ground: and printed another edition of the controverted oration, with annotations, in which, ſtep by ſtep, he gravely refuted M. Wolf, probably much to the amuſement of the latter, whoſe only view is thought to have been, to indulge his humour at the expenſe of perſons who prided themſelves on the reputation of ſuperiour criticiſm.

The new edition of *Tacitus*, with Ruperti's Commentary, publiſhed (at the late Leipzig fair) by Dieterich, is merely a compilation, printed with bad types on coarſe paper. At the ſame time, M. Fritſch, of Leipzig, publiſhed an edition of the younger *Pliny's* works, edited by Schäfer; and alſo, of *Propertius*, by Mr. Kninöl of Gieſſen. The former is an improvement of Geſner's edition; and is printed with excellent types, on fine paper: but the latter is, in theſe reſpects, much inferiour to Heyne's Tibullus.

Mr. Wooll has in the preſs, Biographical Memoirs of the late Dr. J. Warton, with a ſelection from his poetical works, and an extenſive literary correſpondence between eminent perſons, left by him for publication.

J. C. Davie, Eſq. has in the preſs, Travels in South America, in a ſeries of letters to the late Mr. Yorke, of Taunton-Dean.

Mungo Park, with his companions, who ſailed from Portſmouth a few months ago, having touched at the iſlands of St. Jago and Goree, arrived at Kayay, on the river Gambia, on the 14th of April, whence they were to proceed in a few days into the interiour of Africa. The heat was at that time ſo exceſſive, that the thermometer was, in the middle of the day, 100 degrees in the ſhade, and frequently three hours after ſunſet it continued from 82 to 92 degrees.

Mr. Humboldt is beginning to publiſh the reſults of his late travels, with an affectation that deſerves to be reprobated. He begins with ſome expenſive numbers of botany, and thence proceeds to ſome other numbers of zoology and geology, promiſing that he will condeſcend alſo to give to the publick an *abridged* account of his travels, adapted to general reading. His condeſcenſion does not, however, terminate here: for he tells the world that he may probably, in a few years, publiſh a full account of his travels, but that the *abridged* account may ſatisfy curioſity till he has leiſure to gratify it fully!

Mr. Irving, author of a work on Engliſh Compoſition, and of the Lives of the Scottiſh Poets, is engaged on a Life of the celebrated George Buchanan.

The emperour of Ruſſia propoſes forming an inſtitution at Peterſburg for the purpoſe of improving the navy, which is to be called the Marine Muſeum. In this inſtitution, leſſons in all the ſciences neceſſary to be known by a ſea-officer will be given. It will publiſh a ſort of journal upon every ſubject that concerns the marine. There will be attached to the muſeum a library and a collection of natural hiſtory, which will be conſtantly open to the ſtudents. The eſtabliſhment is to be under the direction of the miniſter of the marine, and the members are to wear a uniform like that of the marines.

General Alexander Palitzyn has tranſlated into the Ruſſian language the Voyage of Lord Macartney to China, which will be accompanied with very fine plates.

M. Dupuis, of the Inſtitute, has read a curious memoir on the phœnix. He demonſtrates that this celebrated bird never exiſted. It was ſtated to return at periods of 1481 years; but writes very conſiderably relative to this duration. Herodotus relates many wonderful things concerning the phœnix; Pliny ſpeaks of its reproduction; Tacitus informs us, that it repairs to Heliopolis to die. It was conſecrated to the ſun. One of the times of its appearance occurred during the reign of Seſoſtris, 1328 years before our era. Horus Apollo and Nonnus aſſert that it was an emblem of the ſun, and one of the names of that luminary.

A ſociety has been eſtabliſhed at Berlin, whoſe object is to ſend miſſionaries every year to Africa, and eſpecially to that part of it inhabited by the negroes, that with the light of chriſtianity they may diffuſe ſome tincture of our arts, and ſow ſeeds of a more refined civilization. Two miſſionaries have already ſet out for Guinea.

A variety of valuable antiquities have been diſcovered in Theſſaly. Among them are the buſts of Ariſtotle and Anacreon, a large ſtatue of Ceres, with a coin of Lyſimachus, and ſome remarkable pillars. A Greek MS., containing a commentary of Nicephorus on the ancients, and the ancient Greek church, was diſcovered at the ſame time.

The reſearches at Pompeii are continued with great ſucceſs. The queen of Naples has been with the royal family to inſpect them, and in her preſence was diſcovered an ancient edifice, in which were found vaſes of the greateſt beauty, medals, muſical inſtruments, and what is of more value than all the reſt, a beautiful bronze ſtatue repreſenting Hercules killing the celebrated hind of mount Mænalus. The compoſition and deſign of this group are perfect. In the ſame building have likewiſe been found ſome extremely beautiful paintings, among which one repreſenting Diana ſurpriſed by Actæon is particularly diſtinguiſhed. The colouring of Diana is equal to any thing that Titian ever produced. The queen, it is ſaid, intends to have this ſtructure repaired. She has likewiſe ordered the chevalier Venuti to ſuperintend at Rome the execution of a work in marble, alabaſter, and metal, repreſenting Pompeii in miniature. The chevalier has already executed a ſimilar performance, repreſenting the temples of Pæſtum, which is in the poſſeſſion of the queen.

At the town of Fieſole, near Florence, a beautiful amphitheatre has been diſcovered, and the greateſt part of it cleared from the rubbiſh. It is ſuppoſed that it would contain at leaſt 30,000 perſons.

* * *

Neutral Rights.—The editor, having received letters from ſeveral perſons of diſtinction in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boſton, moſt of whom are perſonally unknown to him, adviſing him to republiſh his numbers on neutral rights in a more permanent form, and their advice having been backed by that of ſome of the moſt reſpectable of his friends in this place, makes the following reply to all theſe applications at once. His circumſtances are not ſuch as to enable him unaſſiſted to carry on a work through the preſs of the magnitude this would be, nor would prudence juſtify the attempt, without the ſupport of a ſubſcription to at leaſt an indemnifying amount. The ſubject is becoming in ſome degree trite, and, to borrow from a letter before me, publick curioſity, always capricious and eaſily wearied, is ſomewhat abated for reading performances of this nature. As, however, the numbers which have appeared in this paper, and which are in a ſtate of preparation to appear, will, when the ſeries is completed, afford at leaſt a more extenſive view of the ſubject, in all its aſpects, than any publication that has yet iſſued from the preſs; the editor is ready and even deſirous to comply with the requeſts with which he has been honoured, if a ſubſcription for that purpoſe can be filled. And that the experiment may be fairly made, he offers the following propoſals:—The numbers, with thoſe to come, ſhall be remoulded, reviſed, and corrected, and form a firſt part; a particular anſwer to ſome of the ſophiſms of War in Diſguiſe, will form a ſecond part; and a collection of all the official documents and memorials which have appeared, having relation to the ſubject, ſhall be added by way of Appendix; ſo as to put the purchaſer in poſſeſſion of a book to which he may at any time refer for all the information he may deſire on a queſtion of ſo great national moment. As it is not practicable to aſcertain what the ſize of the book will be, it is not eaſy to fix upon the price. It is poſſible it may extend to a volume of 400 or perhaps 500 pages, and it will be afforded at the uſual price of a work of ſuch a ſize. To be put to preſs as ſoon as the appearance of the ſubſcription liſt will juſtify it. W. COLEMAN.

[*N. York Evening Poſt.*]

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We have received from Philadelphia a proſpectus of a new periodical paper, to be called The Hour, by Thomas Timekeeper; to be publiſhed every Monday, and will, for the moſt part, be devoted to topicks immediately connected with the Hour; embracing politicks, arts, ſciences, and polite literature; and including, in a more eſpecial manner, a review of the new books, magazines, repoſitories, and various journals of the United States. It will conſiſt of eight large octavo pages, elegantly printed. The price 4 dollars per annum.

Rev. Samuel Auſtin and Mr. Iſaiah Thomas, jun. have iſſued propoſals for publiſhing, by ſubſcription, The complete Works of the late Rev. Preſident Edwards of New Jerſey, in eight octavo volumes of about five hundred pages each, price fourteen dollars, bound.—The publick are now in poſſeſſion of theſe works, but in ſeparate volumes and imperfect editions. It was thought a tribute of reſpect due to this great and amiable theologian, that it would be promotive of the literary reputation of our country, and eſſentially ſubſerve the cauſe of truth and piety in general, to collect theſe works and publiſh them under one entire impreſſion. Since this plan was projected, a ſimilar one has been formed, and the execution of it is now in conſiderable forwardneſs on the other ſide of the Atlantic. But from the late increaſe of taxes impoſed by the Britiſh government, and other incidental cauſes, books imported from England cannot be afforded by bookſellers as cheap as thoſe which are printed here. Beſides, it is to our reproach to ſuffer the works of a man of ſo much celebrity and ſuch uncommon attainments, a man who ſtands on the height of elevation, as a metaphyſician, a theologian, a diſcriminating caſuiſt, and an experimental chriſtian, to want that patronage in his own country which they have abroad.

The Plays of William Shakeſpeare, with Johnſon and Steevens' notes, augmented by Iſaac Reed, are now publiſhing by Meſſrs. Riley & Co. of New York, and Maxwell, &c. of Philadelphia. This firſt complete American edition will be contained in ſeventeen volumes crown octavo, printed in a ſtyle eminently beautiful on a fine cream-coloured woven paper, under the immediate direction and ſuperintendance of an editor, aſſiſted by ſeveral men of letters.

Sydenham's Works.—Mr. Francis Nichols, of Philadelphia, propoſes to reprint the works of Dr. Sydenham, in two volumes octavo, price about three dollars fifty cents. Many phyſicians have been conſulted on the ſubject, who concur in recommending their publication. They will be publiſhed with notes, intended to render them more uſeful to the American ſtudent of medicine, by Benjamin Ruſh, M. D. Profeſſor of Medicine in the univerſity of Pennſylvania. As the expenſe of publiſhing theſe works will be conſiderable, and the ſale not extenſive, they cannot be undertaken without a proſpect of ſucceſs; all phyſicians therefore who are inclined to encourage the publication of them, are deſired to uſe their intereſt among their medical friends, and to tranſmit the names of ſubſcribers to F. Nichols, T. Dobſon, J. Conrad & Co. and S. F. Bradford, bookſellers, Philadelphia; or to White, Burditt, & Co. Boſton.

Mr. Samuel Pleaſants, jun. of Richmond, Virginia, is preparing for the preſs, Part I. of the ſecond volume of the Reviſed Code, containing a collection of ſuch acts of the general aſſembly of Virginia, of a publick and permanent nature, as have been paſſed ſince the year 1801, together with thoſe of the ſame nature, which were omitted in the laſt edition of that work, from 1793 to 1801 incluſive, with notes of reference to former and ſubſequent ſtatutes; to which will be added an appendix and copious index.

DEATHS IN BOSTON

From Thurſday, Jan. 16 to Thurſday, Feb. 13, as reported to the Board of Health.

	Male.	Fem.	Ch.
Accident			1
Conſumption	4	5	2
Debility	1		
Dropſy		1	
*Fever, nervous	6	3	
Old age	3	4	
Peripneumony		1	
Suddenly	2	1	
Unknown	2		13
Total	18	15	16

* Probably incorrect.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES
FOR FEBRUARY.

AT the commencement of February the weather was cold for the moſt part, and ſometimes attended with ſnow. Afterwards, a cloudy atmoſphere, ſudden changes to warm weather, which quickly diſſolved the ſnows, and then as ſuddenly became cold. From about the middle of the month it has been uniformly mild; the ſnow has diſappeared, and vegetation commenced.

The acute diſeaſes of the month have been fewer, than might have been expected from the great variations of temperature, which have exiſted. In the return of deaths (which, by the way, is deficient and incorrect, but better than none) we find ſcarcely any acute diſeaſes named. The truth is, that moſt of thoſe diſorders, which recurred, were cured by medicine. Among theſe may be enumerated a few caſes of pneumonic inflammation, of rheumatiſm, of catarrh, and ſome of typhus mitior followed by long protracted convaleſcence. Chronic complaints form at preſent much the largeſt proportion of diſeaſe.

THE
MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

MARCH, 1806.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No. 3.*

Posilipo....Palace of Queen Joan....Tomb of Virgil....Grotto of Posilipo.

BELOW the suburb of Kiaja is situated the village of Posilipo. The country houses here are a cool retreat during the heat of summer. They are built against the hill of Posilipo, composed of tupu and volcanick substances, and their walls are washed by the waters of the bay, which here, flowing against the base of the hill, leaves no room for a carriage way beyond Posilipo ; afterwards there is only a narrow footpath, in traversing which the passenger is often wet by the spray. Sir William Hamilton had a house here, where he used to retire and enjoy the coolness of the evening. They are mere occasional dwellings ; the space is so circumscribed, that there is no room for gardens ; some of them have a terrace with a few orange and lemon trees. Yet the luxurious Neapolitans esteem this, with reason, a delicious place of resort. After existing through the debilitating heat of the day, they devote the night to pleasure, Posilipo is then a favourite resort ; here they come and regale themselves on oyster suppers, of which they are extravagantly fond. Refreshed by the cool breezes of the evening, and soothed by the murmurs of the waves breaking against the walls of their houses, the luxurious pleasures of the night console them for the lassitude they are tormented with during the fervid heat of the day. One of these casinos was pointed out to me, as having been, a short time before, the residence of an English nobleman, whose eccentricities amused the Neapolitans. He always dressed in the most effeminate manner, the neck and bosom of his shirt edged with fine lace and open like a child's. He dined at eight o'clock, the Italians dine at two ; and making his servants take the lights, he would go and work in his garden by candle light.

Close by Posilipo the ruined palace of Queen Joan projects into the bay. This was the spot, in which that barbarous queen committed those licentious and cruel acts which history attributes to her. The building is very large, and not so far ruined, as to prevent being repaired. It affords shelter to fishermen and their boats. While strolling amid its ruins, reflecting on the scenes of blood and licentiousness which had formerly been acted within its walls, the sight of a fisherman, coming from some of its obscure apartments, started me from my reverie, as though I had seen one of the ghosts of its ancient inhabitants.

Below Posilipo are the extensive

ruins of the villa of Lucullus. It is now called *Scuola di Virgilio.* From these ruins is one of the most extensive views about Naples. You see Vesuvius, the bay, the islands of Capreæ, Ischia, Prochyta, cape Misenus, Baiæ, &c.

There is a winding path, between the Kiaja and Posilipo, which ascends the hill to some houses and a church, situated near its summit. When arrived here, a peasant conducts you through fields of vines and groves of fig trees to a rude, romantick spot, of rather difficult access, and points you to a little ruin, shadowed by trees and overgrown with wild flowers and ivy, the name of which cannot be mentioned without emotion....how much then must be felt in seeing the tomb of Virgil! The lower part is of a square form, the upper part conical. In the inside are some remains of stucco. There are four openings, one of which is quite overgrown with bushes. It is built on the edge of a precipice, near the entrance of the grotto, and the thick growth of the bushes prevented my seeing the carriages rolling over the pavements thirty or forty yards below my feet; the noise, reverberating in the grotto, led me to discover its vicinity, though I could not see it.

Nothing is certain; and the descendants of that being, to whom Apollo gave the chaff, have excited doubts in the mind of the classick pilgrim, whether this is the real tomb of the poet. They have tried to prove, that his ashes repose on the other side of the bay. The reasons for believing this to be his tomb are founded on constant tradition, and that its form and construction agree with the description given by Donato, in his life of the poet.

Opposite the tomb a small marble slab is inserted in the rock with two Latin lines, inscribed to the memory of Sannazarius. But, as Dupaty observes, "a rage for antithesis" has led the author to praise him so extravagantly, that we deny him even the share of merit which he really possessed.

Nothing can exceed the beauty of the view from this place through the branches of the trees. The bay, a part of the city, the mountain, and the coast on the other side, are partially discovered.

....I must endeavour to give you some idea of the grotto of Posilipo, one of the most extraordinary objects around Naples. I shall quote you its history from a short manuscript work, upon the antiquities of Pozzuoli, given me by an Italian gentleman. "It is not certainly known at what time this grotto was formed. It existed in the time of Augustus, since Strabo, his cotemporary, speaks of it distinctly. Some think it to have been the work of Lucullus, because Plutarch, his biographer, says one of his most pleasing employments at Naples was to pierce thro' mountains. This grotto was very narrow in the time of Alphonzo I. of Arragon, who made it much larger at each end; and after this, Don Pedro di Toledo paved it, and left it in its present state."

Turning to the left, after passing the suburb of Kiaja, the road enters the grotto, cut through the hill of Posilipo to maintain the connection, without passing over it, between Baiæ, Pozzuoli, and the city. The entrance is extremely picturesque. The hill being cut away presents to you a perpendicular wall a hundred feet high, above which the summit is crowned with pines and various shrubs, and luxuriant festoons of ivy are hanging down the sides of the rock. The passage is about thirty feet in width and nearly a hundred in height at each end, in order to admit as much light as possible, but it slopes away to the centre, where it is not more than eighteen feet. It is nearly a mile in length; and at the entrance, when you look through the other aperture, appears diminished almost to a point, like the effect produced in looking through an inverted telescope. As the rays of light, admitted at the extremities, would not reach the middle of the passage, about one third the distance is seen by an opening, inclining upwards about thirty feet above the entrance, through which a fresh supply of light is admitted to the centre. Carriages generally go provided with torches, but it is difficult to drive, as the distant light dazzles the sight, and makes it impossible to see any object, when in the middle of the grotto.

The first time I passed thro' it I was in a chair with a friend, who fortunately held the reins; for I could have paid no attention to the horse. My admiration was excited by the romantick appearance of the entrance. The light, admitted at the other extremity, so effectually dazzled my eyes, that I could not see the carriages which were driving rapidly by us, much less the peasants on foot, whose hallooings were blended with the reverberated noise of the wheels on the pavements. I had passed through the obscurity of the grotto and emerged again into the open air, before I could arrange my sensations. In warm weather the coolness, which is felt immediately on entering, is refreshing, and the passage through the grotto becomes very pleasing. There are many openings on each side, closed with gates, which lead into extensive caverns, formed by cutting stones used in building. In one of these openings, towards the centre of the grotto, a hermit has his gloomy cell, and there passes his life, contemplating in silence a skull, by the feeble light of a lamp. The peasants bestow their charity, and receive his blessing; the luxurious man of the world is driven by his hermitage with velocity, while the noise of the wheels does not disturb his meditations.

For the Anthology.

CHARACTER
OF
REV. DR. HOWARD.

The distinguishing feature of Dr. Howard's character was good sense. He thought with accuracy, and reasoned with clearness. This was the style of his publick discourses, which were always solid and judicious. As he was not gifted by nature with a mellow and harmonious voice, as there was no frenzy in his eye, no enthusiasm either in his heart or head, and as he had no proud confidence in his own elocution, he did not acquire the reputation of a popular preacher. But there was not any thing offensive in his delivery, artificial and disgusting in his tones; his emphasis, though not forcible, was just; and there was such perspicuity in his language, so much novelty or importance in his ideas, that he seldom failed to command the attention of an auditory.

Is not such a mode of preaching, on the whole, the most useful? The admirers of eloquence, who go to a church as to a theatre, for the sake of having their passions moved, and who think that a sermon is not good, unless it inspires them either with pity or terrour, will condemn the discourses of Dr. Howard as cold and unaffecting. But when it is considered of what materials christian congregations are composed, this censure will appear unjust. Those who attend publick worship are commonly the most decent and virtuous part of the community. They are parents, who lead to the house of God their children, whom they have trained up in the habits of order and decorum. It is the duty of a minister to confirm such persons in the good practices, which they have already learned, to exhort them to persevere in them, and daily to make new improvements in virtue; to instruct the young in the obligations, with which, from their want of years and experience, they are not yet acquainted, and to point out to them the danger of yielding to temptation; to fill the minds of the hearers in general with adoration and gratitude to God, the author of every perfect gift, and with respect and affection to Jesus, through whom we receive the christian religion; and to warn all to prepare for death, to avoid the punishments, and to qualify themselves for the happiness, of a future world. These are important and interesting themes; but to display them with advantage it is not necessary to have recourse to the language of passion, or vehement gesticulation. A different sentiment, it is confessed, prevails among many, both preachers and hearers. The former deal in bold figures and hyperbolical descriptions. They address a congregation of sober christians, as if they were an assembly of heathens, or a band of thieves and murderers. Their doctrine descends not like the dew, but like the rain in a storm; their voice is not small and soft, but it rolls like thunder, or roars like a whirlwind. They paint the character of the vicious man with blacker strokes of depravity, than those with which Milton has drawn the character of Satan; and they represent the Supreme Being, as hating the work of his own hands, as fired with anger, and armed with vengeance. The hearers listen with admiration of the wonderful oratorical powers of the speaker. Though their bosoms are agitated almost to agony, yet they are at the same time charmed; for there are many men, who are never so much delighted, as when objects of terrour are by luminous and expressive language rendered visible to their eyes. The effect of such preaching sometimes is, that the hearers, their mental sight being accustomed to none but glowing colours, are too much inclined to consider the common and essential duties of life, which are best performed with calmness and moderation, as not sufficiently splendid to be of any value. Religion they suppose to be something *more* than humble reverence of God, love to Christ, justice, sincerity, and benevolence; and it is never so highly prized by them, as when it partakes the most largely of enthusiasm.

To such an impassioned kind of eloquence the temperate Dr. Howard could not attain; and from our knowledge of his sentiments we can say, he would not have attained it, if he could. But though he was never fervent, yet such was the goodness of his heart and his affection to his friends, that he was sometimes pathetick. We particularly recollect two occasions, in which the auditories were much moved by the simple pathos of his voice and language. One was at the funeral of Rev. Dr. Clarke, whose sudden death every one bewailed. The other was at a publick commencement, when his long-tried and faithful friend, the president of the university, lay dangerously sick. On both these occasions, though there were other performances, and by men who were commonly esteemed more eloquent than he, yet the tide of grief rose to its height, whilst he was praying.

This effect was in part produced by the unaffected simplicity of his character. When Dr. Howard appeared to be moved, every person believed that he was really moved. Any event, which so good a man lamented, was a subject of lamentation to all good men: it was impossible therefore to resist being drawn with him into the same current of grief. Simplicity distinguished Dr. Howard on these, and on all other occasions. He never covered his mind with the varnish of art; he never pretended to more feeling, knowledge, or virtue, than he possessed; but with manly plainness he exhibited his sentiments and character, such as they existed.

This freedom from affectation was probably one of the causes of the taciturnity, which was regretted by his friends. The duke de la Rochefoucault observes, that no man ever opens his mouth, unless prompted by vanity; and though we do not entirely assent to the remark,...for Rochefoucault is the satirist of human nature, and disposed to exaggerate all its foibles and vices,...yet we are compelled to grant, that many of the speeches which we hear are dictated by vanity and affectation. Of this truth Dr. Howard was sensible; and this led him often to be silent. He did not choose to speak of himself; he had no ambition to wound the feelings of his neighbour by a smart reply or a witty sarcasm; for flattery and compliments, either serious or sportive, he was totally unqualified by his sincerity; his exemption from prejudice prevented him from railing against the opinions of others, because they differed from his own; his civility rendered him unwilling, by needless contradiction, to offend those who were present; and his prudence, his benevolence, his religion, forbade him to slander the absent. We have cut off so many of the usual topicks of conversation, that few are left for the candid Howard. The subjects, which he preferred, were science, literature, politicks, morality, and theology; and when he spoke on them, he was listened to with pleasure. But he was not always grave and scientifick; for he sometimes enlivened conversation with a sprightly sally; and he frequently charmed the benevolent, by defending the reputation of a brother, when ungenerously attacked. He was silent, but never absent in company: he listened with attention to what others said; and a pleasant smile often marked his approbation of the observations of his friends, particularly of the young, who required this encouragement.

Of humility, the peculiar virtue of the christian, he was an eminent example. No grace of the mind is so often affected as humility. There are men, who, under the name of foibles, accuse themselves of feelings, which they secretly hope every one will regard as amiable weaknesses. There are others, who, that they may enjoy the satisfaction of speaking of themselves, even acknowledge their vices. There are others, who humble themselves with so much stateliness, and condescend with so much dignity, that it is manifest that they think themselves superiour to those who are in their presence. In fine there are others, who write long journals of humility, to be read after their death, and which, though they are dictated by vanity and egotism, are designed to possess the minds of those who peruse them with an exalted idea of their sanctity ; for they confess in general terms, that they are the vilest of men ; whilst they are careful not to specify the particular acts of folly, meanness, and insincerity, which are known to their contemporaries. The humility of Dr. Howard was not of this spurious sort ; he never mentioned either his virtues or his faults ; but it was evident at the same time to all, who were intimately acquainted with him, that he had a humble sense of his own talents and moral attainments.

His humility was sincere ; and sincerity was the soul of all his virtues. He did not join in sentiment with those, who think that a good cause may sometimes be promoted by stratagems. A subterfuge and deceit, an equivocation and a lie, were in his view equally criminal. For the sake of obtaining the approbation of men, and promoting his worldly interest, he did not profess to esteem what he really despised.

The sincerity and uprightness of his mind led him to inquire after truth with diligence, and to pursue it with impartiality. The result of his careful investigation was, that he saw reason to reject the theological system of Calvin ; and though at the time, in which he entered on his ministerial life, the religious opinions that he adopted were much more unpopular than they are at present ; yet he was not deterred by this consideration from openly declaring what he believed. The creed which he thus early embraced, he saw no cause afterwards to change, but he persevered in it to the last. We presume not to say that he had discovered the truth ; but of this we have not any doubt, that, blessed by his Maker with a clear understanding, he exerted himself to obtain it, with industry and patience, humility and devotion. To those who are disposed to appeal to the authority of intelligent and virtuous men, in support of their opinions, the authority of Dr. Howard might with force be urged. But on this species of argument, which is seldom brought forward, except by those who cannot produce any better proof, no stress ought to be laid ; because experience shows,....though, before we become acquainted with the actual state of human life, we are ready to suspect the contrary, ...that wise and good men are not confined to any particular system of religious faith.

The candour of Dr. Howard equalled his love of truth. He was not only indulgent in his thoughts, and tolerant in his conduct, toward those who differed from him in opinion, but he also treated them with respect and kindness. The religious sentiments of christians, however erroneous they might be, and their ceremonies and modes of worship, however superstitious they might appear, he maintained ought always to be treated with decency ; and he neither allowed in himself, nor did he approve in others, a sarcastick and irreverent way of speaking, of objects, which any sincere believer might deem sacred. For this catholicism he was entitled to great praise; because the temptations to an opposite practice are very powerful; and nothing is more common than to hear christians, especially those who esteem themselves wiser or more holy than their neighbours, charge each other with absurdity, superstition, fanaticism, or heresy.

The spirit of Dr. Howard rendered him averse to such uncharitable thoughts; for mildness reigned in his heart. Gentle by nature, by habit, and by religion, he could not express severity, which he never felt; gall could not flow from his tongue, for there was none in his constitution. His temper was sweet and amiable; and his good sense forbade him to embitter it with bigoted and malignant invectives. His soul was calm; and what motive had he to disturb its tranquillity with the furious storms of uncharitable zeal?

This well regulated temper inspired him with constant cheerfulness. Though reserved, he was not solemn; though serious, not gloomy. The peace, which dwelt in his heart, appeared in his countenance, in traits which no art can counterfeit.

That such a man was dear to his friends will readily be believed; and he was so friendly in his disposition and behaviour, that many were bound to him by this affectionate tie. His parishioners loved him as a brother, or honoured him as a father: for they knew, that he had engaged in the ministry from pure, disinterested, and pious motives; that he discharged all its duties with diligence and fidelity: that he rejoiced with them, when they rejoiced, and wept with them, when they wept. The affection, which they felt for him, never suffered any interruption; but as old age approached, and he advanced toward heaven, he became more deeply fixed in their hearts, like a tree, whose roots penetrate still farther into the earth, in proportion as its branches rise in the air. He was dear to his brethren in the ministry, who always welcomed him with smiles of complacence. He was dear to all his fellow-citizens, who admired his good sense, and venerated his patriotism, his integrity, his bevolence, and his sanctity. As a kind master, a tender husband, and a most indulgent parent, he was in particular dear to his family. That he was dear to God we have reason humbly to believe; for the character, which he possessed, must have been formed by habitual devotion, by piety which filled his heart, and whence, as from a copious fountain, flowed all the virtues which he practised.

The reader will learn with pleasure, that this good man enjoyed as much felicity, as usually falls to the lot of mortals. His days were passed with usefulness, an approving conscience, and the blessing of heaven; and though he was sometimes sick, and sometimes afflicted, yet the edge of bodily pain was blunted by patience, and the force of mental anguish was weakened by resignation. A constitution naturally delicate was preserved to old age by care and temperance; and to a world of unmingled joy he at length passed, through the valley of death, without experiencing many of the horrours, which sometimes overshadow the dismal region.

We hope none of our gay readers, with whom method and dulness are almost synonimous, will be deterred by its title from the following paper. They will, we think, find much of that unadorned, manly, and dignified sense which we see in the philosophical writings of the ages of Anne and the first George, which antithesis and metaphor have of late almost succeeded in banishing.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

METHOD is despised by some, and its utility exaggerated by others. Many writers consider *rules* as shackles of genius. Others believe them a great assistance; but they choose them so injudiciously, and multiply them to such excess, that they render them useless and even pernicious. All are equally in the wrong: the former for undervaluing method, because they are not masters of a good one; the latter for believing it necessary, when they understand none that is not very defective.

A work, without order, may succeed by its details, and place its author among the good writers: but a better arrangement would render it more worthy of success. In matters of reasoning, it is impossible that the light should be diffused equally over all the parts, if method is wanting; in things of amusement, at least, it is certain, that every thing, which is not in its place, loses some part of its beauty. But without loitering in all these discussions, let us define method, and the necessity of it will be demonstrated. I say then, that method is the art of reconciling the greatest perspicuity and the greatest precision with all the beauties, of which a subject is susceptible.

There are writers, who know not how to confine themselves within their subject. They lose themselves in digressions without number, and they find themselves again, only to repeat what they had said: it seems as if thy believed, that by rambles and repetitions they might supply the things which they know not how to say. Others change their style, without consulting the nature of the subject which they treat. They pique themselves on their eloquence, when they ought to be contented with reasoning. They give you an analysis, when they ought to give a description; and their imagination grows hot and grows cold, almost always in the wrong place.

That we may not wander in the course of a work, and that we may say every thing in its proper place and express it conveniently, it is absolutely necessary, to embrace our object in a general view. Obscurity, when it is rare, may proceed from inadvertence; but when it is frequent, it arises certainly from the confused manner, in which we seize the subject of which we treat. We judge not well of the proportions of each part, but when we see the whole at once.

Poets and orators early felt the utility of method. Among them, accordingly, it made the most rapid progress. They had the advantage of making trials of their productions upon a whole people: witnesses of the impressions they made, they had opportunities of observing what was wanting in their works.

The philosophers had not the advantage of the same admonitions. Thinking it below them to write for the multitude, they made it, for a long time, a duty to be unintelligible. Frequently it was nothing more than a fetch of their vanity; they wished to conceal their ignorance from themselves, and it was sufficient for them to appear to be informed in the eyes of the people, who, better qualified to admire than to judge, very willingly believed them on their word. The philosophers then, having for judges only their disciples, who blindly adopted their opinions, could not suspect their method to be defective: they could only believe, on the contrary, that whoever did not understand them wanted intelligence. This is one reason, that their labours have produced so many frivolous disputes, and contributed so little to the progress of the art of reading.

The first poems were only histories, woven together, without art: many ambiguous expressions, many rambles, and repetitions without number. Facts, so ill digested, could not easily be preserved in the memory, and experience taught insensibly how to disentangle them and present them with more precision. When they knew how to place the facts in order, they wished to add ornaments, and they loaded them with fictions. To write history they composed romances in verse, that is to say, poems. Since prose has been consecrated to history, there has been the same propensity to fictions. They have therefore made poems in prose, that is, romances. It is thus that romances and poems have sprung from history.

When they began to compose poems, they soon perceived the importance of interesting. It was remarked, that the interest increases in proportion as it is less divided; and it was acknowledged, that unity of action is necessary. Other observations discovered other rules, and the poets had, concerning method, ideas so exact, that it was reserved for them to give lessons to the philosophers.

Although their rules are the fruit of experience and reflexion, some writers have combatted them, as if they were only old prejudices. They have thought to establish new opinions by reviving the errours of the first artists, and restoring the arts to their original barbarity.

It is not to render service to genius to disengage it from subjection to method. It is, for them, what the laws are to a freeman.

Poems will please, only in proportion as these rules are observed. If we find attractions in episodes, it is because each of them is one; and by consequence separated from the work, with which it is not connected, has its beauty. All together, they compose a poem in which are beautiful things, but make not a beautiful poem: in fact, if, descending from details to details, we perceive not unity in any part, the entire work will be but a chaos. All the parts, then, ought to form a single whole.

The rules are the same for eloquence; but while experience guided the orators and poets, who cultivated their arts without affecting to give precepts, the philosophers wrote in a method which they had not discovered, and of which they believed they gave the first lessons. They have composed treatises on rhetorick, on poetry, and on logick. Without being poets or orators, they have known the rules of poetry and eloquence, because they have sought for them in models, where the examples were to be found. If they had been possessed early of equal models of philosophy, they would not have been so slow in acquiring the art of reading. It is because they have been deprived of this aid, that they have inserted in their logick so few of useful things and so many subtilties.

The method, which teaches to make a whole, is common to all kinds. It is, above all, necessary in works of reasoning; for the attention diminishes in proportion as it is divided, and the mind seizes nothing, when it is distracted by too great a number of objects.

But the unity of action in works intended to interest us, and the unity of object in such as are composed to instruct us, equally demand, that all the parts among themselves should be in exact proportion, and that, subordinate the one to the others, they relate all to the same end. By this, unity brings us to the principle of the greatest connexion of ideas; upon this it depends. In truth, this connexion being found, the beginning, the end, and the intermediate parts, are determined: every thing which alters the proportions is cut off; and we can no longer lop, or displace any thing, without injury to the connexion or the pleasure.

To discover this connexion it is necessary to fix our object, until we can determine the principal parts of it, and comprehend them all in the general division. We must avoid divisions merely arbitrary, and even preliminary divisions, by which we decompose an object in all its parts; the mind of the reader would be fatigued from the first entrance of the work; things which would be most essential to him to retain, would escape him, and the precautions, which the author should have taken to make himself understood, would often render him unintelligible. To begin by divisions without number, to make a great shew of method, is to bewilder ourselves in an obscure labyrinth in order to arrive at the light. Method never proclaims itself less, than when there is most of it.

The beginning of a work, then, cannot be too simple, nor too entirely disengaged from every thing which occasions any difficulty.

The general division being made, we ought to search for the order in which the parts contribute the most to diffuse upon each other light and attraction. By this, all will be in the greatest connexion.

Afterwards each part should be considered in particular, and subdivided as often as it includes objects, each of which can constitute *a little whole*. Nothing should be admitted into these subdivisions, which can alter the unity of them; and the parts know no other order, than that which is indicated by a gradation the most obvious. In works composed to interest us, it is the gradation of sentiment; in others it is the gradation of evidence. But to conduct ourselves surely, it is necessary to know how to choose among our ideas, which present themselves: the choice is necessary, that we may adopt nothing, which contributes not to the strictest connexion of ideas. Every thing that is not attached to the subject we treat, ought to be rejected; even things which have some connexion with it, deserve not always to be employed. This right belongs only to those things, which can connect themselves the most sensibly to the end which we propose.

The subject, and the end, are the two points of view, which ought to regulate us. Thus, when an idea occurs, we have to consider whether, being connected with our subject, it developes it in relation to the end, for which we treat it; and whether it conducts us to that end by the shortest course.

In taking our subject for the only fixed point, we may extend ourselves indifferently on all sides. Then, the farther we ramble, the less the details, among which our thoughts wander, have relation to one another; we no longer know where we are to stop, and we appear to undertake several works, without accomplishing any. But when we have, for a second point fixed, an end well determined, the road is marked; every step contributes to a still greater developement, and we arrive at the conclusion without having ever gone out of our way. If the whole work has a subject and an end, every chapter has equally both the one and the other; and so has every section, and every phrase. It is therefore necessary to pursue the same conduct in the details. By this, the work will be one in the whole and in every part, and all will be in the greatest possible connexion. By conforming to the principle of the greatest connexion, a work will be reduced to the smallest number of chapters, the chapters to the smallest number of sections, the sections to the smallest number of periods, and the periods to the smallest number of words.

In nature all objects are connected in the formation of a single whole. This is the reason, it is so natural to us to pass lightly from one thing to another. We are, even in our greatest excursions, always conducted by some sort of connexion. We ought therefore continually to watch over ourselves, that we may not go out of the subject we have chosen. It is necessary to give so much more attention to this, because always in combat with ourselves to prescribe limits and to overleap them. We think ourselves authorized, under the smallest pretext, in our greatest departures. It often seems, that we are more curious to shew that we know a great deal, than to make it appear we know well those things we treat.

Digressions are not permitted, but when we find not in the subject, on which we write, materials to present it with all the advantages we desire. Then we look elsewhere for that, which it does not afford; but it is with the design to return to it soon, and with the hope of diffusing over it more light and ornament. Digressions and episodes ought not therefore ever to make us forget the principal subject. They must have in that subject their beginning, their end, and they must incessantly return to it. A good writer is like a traveller, who has the prudence never to quit his path, except to enter again with accommodations proper to enable him to continue his journey more happily. A great work is to be considered like a discourse of a few pages, or periods; for the method is the same for the one and the other.

We may labour on the different parts of a work, according to the order in which we have distributed them; and we may also, when the plan has been well digested, pass indifferently from the commencement to the end, or to the middle, and, instead of subjecting ourselves to any order, consult only the impulse or inclination, which prompts us to seize the moment, in which we are more prepared to treat of one part than another.

There is in this conduct a liberty, which resembles, without being a disorder. It relaxes the mind by presenting to it objects always different, and leaves it at liberty to resign itself to all its vivacity. Nevertheless the subordination of the parts fixes the points of view, which prevent or correct all digressions, and which recal us continually to the principal object. We should employ all our address to regulate the mind, without depriving it of its liberty. Whatever order men of talents discover in their works, it is rare that they subject themselves to it, when they study.

It remains to treat of the different kinds of works. For there are three, in general; the didactick, the narration, and the description; for we reason, we relate, and we describe. In the didactick we lay down questions and discuss them; In narration we expose facts, true or imaginary, which comprehends history, romance, and poems: In description we paint what we see, and what we feel, which belongs particularly to the orator and to the poet.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

REMARKER.

No. 7.

Quo teneam mutantem Protea nodo? HOR.

THERE is a word on every one's tongue, to limit the meaning of which however, by an indisputable definition, seems scarcely less difficult, than to "tell you where fancy's bred." It is *taste*;...something about which every one talks, because nobody is willing to believe he is ignorant of what all the rest of the world knows. Yet, when curiously examined, it appears to be something so aërial and volatile in its nature, that it can scarcely be grasped by the metaphysician, and which, at the sight of the chains of logick,

Spreads its light wings, and in a moment flies.

The principles by which it is regulated are supposed to be as variable, as its nature is mysterious. Not only does the taste of every age apparently differ; but in every nation of the same age, and I had almost said in every individual of the same nation, does this Proteus assume new forms, and frolick in new caprices. That taste has no law is commonly supposed to be one of those universal and indisputable truths, which, like the maxims of the schools, must equally silence the cavils of the ignorant and the wise.

Still, however, there are some difficulties attending the common opinion of the mutability of taste, which seem to me almost to make heresy pardonable. We believe, after all, that taste is a word of some significance. We even ascribe to its influence all that is beautiful and lovely in art, and tho' its nature, like the musick of Ariel, is unseen and incomprehensible, yet we cannot forbear to hear its harmony above and around us.

But if the opinion we mention is correct, these conclusions are all fallacious. If taste be thus lawless and capricious, he, who calls himself the man of taste, has little cause of self complacency. His assumption of some fixed principles of judgment is perfectly gratuitous; and if we refuse to concede them, there are no statutes of reasoning on which he can extort our belief, To talk of the canons of criticism, on this supposition, is unmeaning and ridiculous; for what is the value of principles, the application of which depend on something which is thus arbitrary and mutable? The critick, if there is no standard of taste, is only the legislator of caprice, and the lord chancellor of whim. The praise, which he and the world give to the writings, which taste has embalmed and consecrated, is puerile and groundless; our admiration is all traditionary and inherited, and we only repeat raptures already a thousand years old.

To say, however, there exists no standard of taste, seems little less than to affirm, that there are no common feelings in our nature, and nothing similar in the construction of our minds. It does not require much philosophy to perceive, that beauty exists in the mind, and not in the object of its contemplation. It is then obvious that, as the grand and prominent appearances of external nature do not change, if there were an essential diversity in our relish for them, it could arise only from the variety and mutability of our perceptions. But the rose is as sweet to you as to me. We differ not in our wonder at what is sublime, or our delight in what is beautiful in nature; though there is not equality in our feelings, there is no discordance. If then our perceptions of pleasure are similar, though unequal, we must believe, that there are some common principles of judging of the perfection of those arts, which profess to imitate the objects that produce our perceptions. If we grant any identity in the formation of our minds, can we forbear to conclude, that mankind must retain these principles as long as nature, which it is the province of poetry and painting to depicture, and the passions, which it is their province to analyze and unfold, remain invariable and the same?

But this conclusion is not merely authorized by speculation. It is only on the supposition of a standard of taste, that we can account for the fact, that there are principles of judging, which have continued permanent and established. The origin of these principles will not account for it, for that is just what we should suppose it would be on the theory we advocate. La génie, says La Harpe, a consideré la nature, & l'embellie en l'imitant, des esprits observateurs out considéré le génie, & out dévoilé par analyse le secret de des merveilles. That we should acquiesce in the principles thus collected, that the decisions of criticism in one age should be submitted to and affirmed in another, is surely inconsistent with any other supposition, than that they are founded on the constitution of our common nature. It is unnecessary to attempt to prove that there is such acquiescence, for who will deny, that Longinus and Quintilian are arbiters of elegance now, equally as among the ancients, and that whatever was sublime or beautiful to them continues so to us.

It is however in tasté, as it is, in some degree, in morals; though its general and essential principles are immutable and unquestionable, yet their application to individual instances is not a little fluctuating. We shall accordingly be told of the opposing sentiments, and still agitated controversies among men of taste; and that deep fixed as these principles may be, they do not secure even criticks from deception. We shall be told of the success of the forgery of Sigonius,* and reminded that a boy of eighteen,† in the eighteenth century, when the idolatry of Shakespeare was at its height, successfully imposed Vortigern on Parr and half the English nation, as a genuine relick of the bard of Avon. If, indeed, in the days of Cicero, they disputed on the nature of Atticism, and the orator was accused of a style vitiated and Asiatick; if Seneca and Tacitus are pronounced the corruptors of Roman taste, and Fontenelle in France, and Johnson and Gibbon in England, receive a similar sentence from criticks of no vulgar rank, he must be a strong-nerved controversialist, who will assert that the philosophy of taste is completely understood. Still, because their application is not unerring, it is no proof that principles are not fixed, and if this diversity can be accounted for, the theory will remain unshaken.

The common notion of the nature of taste, that it is an original and distinct faculty, or rather a certain indefinable instinct, which discriminates by feeling and decides by impulse, is not perhaps very philosophical. We will not undertake to puzzle our readers and ourselves with a metaphysical refutation of the opinion from the construction and laws of the mind. The palpable fact, that taste is matured and perfected by experience, as it accounts for the production of it on principles exactly analogous to that of all the other powers of the mind, is of itself sufficient.

The fact, which is here assumed, will I presume be conceded, but, to destroy the possibility of doubt, I will produce a proof as decisive as it is indisputable. Sir Joshua Reynolds* relates of himself, that at his first visit to the Vatican he walked about it for a long time, surveying with delight the various paintings which adorned it; till at length, after he had been fatigued by the toil of admiration, he inquired of his guide for the works of Raffaelle, and was coolly informed, that the first paintings he had been shown, and which he had passed by, almost without examination, were the works of that surpassing genius, who is to Angelo what Virgil is to Homer. He adds, that he was by no means induced to dispute the justice of the sentence, which had so long given Raffaelle his rank; but suspecting his own judgment, he sat down to the study of his works, and at length disciplined his mind to acquiescence in the decision.

If it be granted then that taste is factitious, it is placed on the same foundation, as the other faculties of the mind, and the varieties of taste are to be explained on precisely the same principles, as the varieties of reason and judgment. We might as well say, that morals are baseless and fortuitous, because men dispute on them, as to say, that taste has no laws, because all do not assent to them. Indeed we have here a foundation for what, after all, we find true in fact, for greater permanency in the decisions of taste, when once made, than in those of reason and judgment. For the passions, on the delineation and colouring of which so much of the influence of poetry and elegance depends, are infinitely less variable in their operations, than the judgment and reason. We accordingly find, that while systems of recondite science fade away and are forgotten, the language of nature and of passion is eternally the same. The philosophical theories of the ancients are now neglected, or regarded only for the beauties of the style in which they are conveyed; but their poetry and eloquence still find an echo in every breast, the creations of their fancy are still warm and breathing with life, still sparkling and ruddy with undecaying youth.

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* The author of the tract, De Consolatione, usually printed among the works of Cicero.

† Ireland.

* Life by Malone. This account is quoted from memory, but is, I believe, substantially correct.

It would be easy to enumerate some of the secondary causes of the diversities of taste, such as the different degrees of original sensibility, and the accidental associations of peculiar situations. But I forbear, for the Remarker is already more than suspected of being rather long-breathed; and some of our Juvenals will begin to exclaim against this indefatigable descendant of Orestes. Let me only observe, that I am far from contending for a standard so rigorously limited, as to exclude from the list of fine writers Seneca or Tacitus, Fontenelle or Gibbon; still less for one which would exclude any felicity of invention, or frolick of fancy, because it departs from its laws, or which would canonize feebleness and triviality, because they do not offend them. The fine arts have some beauties, such as the French call *finesses*, which, from accidental circumstances, are more or less praised in different ages, but their grand and essential beauties are, I believe, regulated by laws, as invariable as nature itself.—To me this is not merely a question of curious speculation; for if I doubted the existence of a standard of taste, I should lose much glow while I read, and all trembling when I write; I should lose too, while I meditate the great masters of taste, all the complacency, which arises from the whisper of vanity, that I may hereafter be worthy to praise them.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SILVA. *No.* 13.

Nempe inter varias nutritur SILVA *columnas.*—HOR.

BURNS AND BLOOMFIELD.

THESE two poets appeared nearly at the same time. Both combated the disadvantages of low birth, and the want of education; and the powers of both expanded unassisted by the genial warmth of patronage, till they excited the attention, and procured the favour of the publick. But here the resemblance ceases. Bloomfield has already outlived his reputation; but the reputation of Burns still increased, though he was himself the cause of his miserable end. His genius, full of fire and feeling, made us forget his foibles. We thought only on the poet, or if we remembered the man, it was to regret, that fortune had not been more propitious, and saved him from those temptations, which he was unable to resist. The advocates of Bloomfield advance, that the narrow cell of a cobler's stall is less propitious to the expansion of genius, than the open fields, where the mind is easily drawn by the beauties of nature to leave the plough, and walk in her flowery paths. But his poems exhibit no proof of a mind equal to conceiving those beauties, which abound in Burns. The applause of his fellow apprentices for a few happy rhymes might easily lead him to give his leisure moments to writing verses; and without possessing that genius, of whose power we hear so much, and see so little, he might produce a poem, which, considering the disadvantages under which he laboured, would produce surprise. The hand of patronage would be extended by those, who are desirous to bring forward talents and merit; and the voice of criticism would be silenced by a reference to his former circumstances. But comparative merit cannot be allowed in the republick of letters. Authors must be finally judged by their works alone. The few beauties, which we find in Bloomfield, cannot palliate his faults. A momentary gleam may burst through the thick darkness; but the prospect is gloomy, and we are eager to quit the dreary scene. Should his genius be as prolifick as was Rhea, Saturn is as insatiable as ever to destroy the offspring as soon as born; and no deceit will now save a favourite production from his ruthless tooth. The genius of Burns struggled against poverty and the insolence of petty office; but rose superiour to every obstacle. We labour with pleasure through a barbarous glossary, that we may fully relish his beauties. We learn his language and become his countryman, that we may enjoy the innocent pleasures of the cotter's Saturday night.

HUDIBRAS.

The excellence of this work is no longer questioned. The seal of merit has been affixed to it by the hand of time; and few are so hardy, as to question his decrees. Every one would be thought acquainted with it, yet I doubt, whether it ever produced sufficient interest to spoil a dinner for its greatest admirer. Though full of the flashings of genius, and the observations of an acute understanding, it wants interest to keep attention alive. The novelty of language soon wears off. The unexpected resemblance between dissimilar objects, and the peculiar mode of viewing them, at first delights, but soon fatigues; and we look in vain for incidents, upon which to rest our wearied imagination. We find ourselves lost in a wilderness of flowers; and when satiated with admiring their singular form, and varied tints, we reflect, that we are not advancing towards the end of our journey; our guide, instead of relieving us by pointing out the object, to which we should be advancing, only presents us with a fresh nosegay.

This want of interest can but in part be attributed to the local subject of the work. The satires of Swift and Pope afford us great pleasure in the perusal, though Dennis and Wood are known to us but from these authors. And though the characters of the English revolution are uncommon, and such as are rarely exhibited upon the theatre of the world, yet the same desire of overturning every thing established by age led the French to imitate the English in their revolution; and when every thing of importance had been overthrown, to turn their zeal to things of no consequence. We therefore find many observations in Hudibras, which may with propriety be applied to the scenes, that have lately been exhibited in France. Much therefore of the want of interest in this poem must be attributed to its radical defects, paucity of incidents and to its being unconnected. The judgment of Johnson has corrected the criticism of Dryden, who thought the work would have been improved by heroick metre. But it may still remain a doubt, whether the same talents and judgment differently employed might not have produced a more interesting picture of the manners and conduct of the fanaticks of the English revolution.

IMITATION OF HUDIBRAS.

JOHNSON says in his life of Butler, "Nor even should another Butler arise, would another Hudibras obtain the same regard." But neither this prediction, nor the fate of all their predecessors lost in the same path, can deter many from seeking immortality by following the same footsteps. Without possessing the genius of Butler, which illumines every page of his works, his imitators assume his dress, and think, under the name of Hudibrastick verse, they may conceal poverty of thought and grossness of language. But as it is easy to ape the trifling peculiarities of great men, it should be remembered, that, as great qualities seem more conspicuous by the neglect of trifles, every thing is wanting, where those qualities are not to be found. The paintings of genius will attract admiration, whether they modestly display their beauties in simple colours, or are tricked off in a court dress; but a splendid frame must draw the eye of observation from a mere daub. Familiar language, neglected verse, and low imagery, are not sufficient to bring to our minds the muse of Butler. We may without effort be induced to glide down the silent stream of modern poetry, where we are only guided by industrious imitation. But over a rugged road some superiour power must lead us, or we shall not be induced to follow. This mode of writing may be successfully used, where we mean to satirize on objects mean and temporary. We may caricature, though we can hardly draw a picture, in Hudibrastick verse. The passing follies of the hour may be ridiculed in this verse; and we are pleased to see an author succeed in holding up to derision in it characters who, with the bad principles of the day, endanger our civil and political safety. But, not content with rendering to Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, many of our criticks, with more patriotism than judgment, so surcharge with flattery every American publication, as to disgust even our vitiated palates. We were led to this remark by lately seeing in our papers a selection from the Port Folio upon Democracy Unveiled; in which Mr. Fessenden is ranked before Butler, and has Churchill and the first English satirists placed by his side. We could not but regret, that so useful an author, and one who has afforded us so much pleasure, should thus have his feelings injured by injudicious praise. He seems not to have cast a look at immortality; but to have been content with having merited the applause of his country, and of his own heart, for promoting the cause of virtue and of good government.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

COULD one of our pious ancestors, who first landed on these shores, by some magick spell be raised from the grave, where he had reposed for years, his astonishment, at the present manners of our ladies, would no doubt be very great. He would no longer, as in his day, find ladies employed in domestick occupations, in the arrangement of the household, in needle work, &c. but he would find the use of the distaff almost unknown to them, and that the knowledge of fashions had succeeded to the knowledge of domestick economy. Should he examine, whether they had acquired the accomplishments, to which they boast their time had been devoted, he would find their knowledge of musick sufficient to make them unwilling to play, but in the partial hearing of their own family; he would see them fond of dancing, but unable to move with grace; pleased with poetry, but confining their admiration to the daily effusions of the newspapers; so enraptured with romance, as to devour every novel placed before them; making perhaps an unusual effort to paint, and producing what is deemed exquisite by themselves and friends, because at the first view any one may know for what it was designed; discarding the decent dress of their ancestors for ridiculous fashions, imported from abroad; and much more attentive at the playhouse, than at church. With such a picture before him, he might, without being deemed a skeptick, doubt the boasted superiority of our present manners; whether the solid qualities of his day had not been exchanged for mere tinsel to catch the eye; and whether women were now more useful members of the community, than formerly. Should he then observe our morals, which were formerly preserved by strictness of authority, now left exposed to the rude buffets of the world, without one established principle to guide them amid the quicksands of passion, or to guard them against the contagion of corrupt examples, imported with our fashions; and that they had to look to feeling alone for assistance, I tremble lest his doubts should be removed, and the verdict be given in favour of his own age. Though we could not deny the justice of this decision, no one, I believe, would wish to bring back the manners of that age, when the mistress was little more than an upper servant in her own house, and her ideas not raised above that condition. In the first settlement of this country, the men were wholly occupied in obtaining a bare subsistence; and the aid of the female was necessary to add to their hard fare a few of the comforts of life. Custom continued what was commenced from necessity, even after an intercourse with other nations had introduced more liberal ideas. Most men, rivetted to old habits, were unwilling to see their wives and daughters employ that time in improving their minds, which they thought ought to be occupied in domestick employments. These prejudices are now nearly removed; women are raised from their station in the kitchen to a rank in society; but no means are taken to prepare their minds for their new situation. The infant is sent to school, because the avocations of the mother will not permit her attention to it. At school, its mind is first opened; but instead of having goodness instilled into it, and made a part of its constitution, it receives the knowledge of evil, from which the female mind, not designed for the bustle of the world, should be kept as long as possible. At different schools she remains nine or ten years, learns to read, to answer by rote such questions in geography as the common school-books contain, and perhaps may be enabled to cast up a shopkeeper's account.

From her dancing master she has not even learnt to walk; and ere she is a mother, the little musick she may have acquired, is quite forgotten. But is her mind now prepared, and has her education fitted her for acting her part in society? or are women born without minds, and only designed to continue the species? If so, we ought to have a tribunal of marriages, that by crossing the breed the race might be improved. But, without recurring to such monsters as Catharine and Elizabeth, history and our own experience inform us, that woman has ever possessed a mind fine and delicate; and although its texture may frequently be destroyed by education in its infancy, that she was designed for the companion, not for the servant of man. This mind then should be cultivated, she should be taught to think as well as to read. For many, with a laudable desire of knowledge, but undirected in the means of obtaining it, feed with avidity on whatever books chance throws in their way, and think they have stored their minds, by lodging the principal ideas in their memories. But not knowing how to use their knowledge, it is of no more service to them, than treasure is to the miser, who always keeps it fast locked, and fears to look at it himself. She who only reads, instead of useful and nutritious herbs and flowers, will collect nettles and weeds, and at best will only obtain useless trash. If she really wishes to improve her mind, she must be willing to study, and thoroughly to understand every thing she undertakes; and she will not then in vain request the direction of her friends. She may do this, without neglecting those exteriour accomplishments, which give a captivating and irresistible dignity to the female person. She may be able to participate in all our joys, and alleviate all our cares; temper our ardour with moderation, and excite our dormant benevolence into action. She would then neither be regarded in the degraded state of a housekeeper, nor as a pretty toy to be admired; but as our best companion, for which God and nature designed her.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

EXTRACTS FROM MEMOIRS OF MARMONTEL, WRITTEN BY HIMSELF.

Marmontel informs us that he was born at the small town of Bort in the Limosin, of which he gives a beautiful portrait:

'Bort, seated on the Dordogne between Auvergne and Limosin, presents a fearful picture to the first view of the traveller, who, at a distance, from the top of the mountain, sees it at the bottom of a precipice threatened with inundation by the torrents that the storms occasion, or with instant annihilation by a chain of volcanick rocks, some planted like towers on the height that commands the town, and others already hanging and half torn from their base. But Bort assumes an aspect more gay, as these fears are dissipated and the eye extends itself along the valley. The green and woody island that lies beyond the town, embraced by the river, and animated by the noise and motion of a mill, is filled with birds. On the banks of the river, orchards, meadows, and corn fields, cultivated by a laborious people, form varied pictures. Below the town the valley opens, presenting on one side an extensive meadow watered by continual springs, and on the other fields crowned by a circle of hills, whose gentle slope forms a pleasing contrast with the opposite rocks. Farther on, this circle is broken by a torrent which, from the mountains, rolls and bounds through forests, rocks, and precipices, till it falls into the Dordogne by one of the most beautiful cataracts of the continent, both for the volume of water, and the height of its fall; a phenomenon which only wants more frequent spectators to be renowned and admired. It is near this cataract that the little farm of St. Thomas lies, where I used to read Virgil under the shade of the blossoming trees that surrounded our bee hives, and where their honey afforded me such delicious repasts. It is on the other side of the town, beyond the mill, and on the slope of the mountain, that the garden lies, where on welcome holidays my father used to lead me to gather grapes from the vines he himself had planted, or cherries, plums, and apples from the trees he had grafted. But the charm that my native village has left on my memory arises from the vivid impression I still retain of the first feelings, with which my soul was imbued and penetrated, by the inexpressible tenderness that my parents shewed me. If I have any kindness in my character, I am persuaded that I owe it to these gentle emotions, to the habitual happiness of loving and being loved. Ah! what a gift do we receive from heaven, when we are blessed with kind, affectionate parents!

'I also owed much to a certain amenity of manners that then distinguished my native place; and indeed the simple gentle life we led there must have had some attraction, since nothing was more rare than to see the natives desert it. Their youth was instructed, and their colony distinguished itself in the neighbouring schools; but they returned again to their town, like a swarm of bees to the hive, with the sweets they had collected.'

Marmontel is to be regarded as the immediate cause of the great change which has taken place in the dramatick world; of simplicity in declamation, and truth in the costume of the theatre.—'I had (says he) long been in the habit of disputing with Mademoiselle Clairon, on the manner of declaiming tragick verses. I found in her playing too much violence and impetuosity, not enough suppleness and variety, and above all a force that, as it was not qualified, was more a-kin to rant than to sensibility. It was this that I endeavoured discreetly to make her understand. "You have," I used to say to her, "all the means of excelling in your art; and great as you are, it would be easy for you still to rise above yourself, by managing more carefully the powers of which you are so prodigal. You oppose to me your brilliant successes, and those you have procured me; you oppose to me the opinions and the suffrages of your friends; you oppose to me the authority of M. de Voltaire: who himself recites his verses with emphasis, and who pretends that tragick verses require, in declamation, the same pomp as in the style; and I can only answer I have an irresistible feeling, which tells me that declamation, like style, may be noble, majestick, tragick, with simplicity; that expression, to be lively and profoundly penetrating, requires gradations, shades, unforeseen and sudden traits, which it cannot have when it is stretched and forced." She used to reply sometimes with impatience, that I should never let her rest, till she had assumed a familiar and comick tone in tragedy. "Ah! no, Mademoiselle," said I, "that you will never have; nature has forbidden it; you even have it not, while you are speaking to me; the sound of your voice, the air of your countenance, your pronunciation, your gestures, your attitudes, are naturally noble. Dare only to confide in this native talent, and I dare warrant you will be the more tragick."

'Other counsels than mine prevailed, and, tired of being importunate without utility, I had yielded, when I saw the actress suddenly and voluntarily come over to my opinion. She came to play Roxane at the little theatre at Versailles. I went to see her at the toilette, and, for the first time, I found her dressed in the habit of a sultana; without hoop, her arms half naked, and in the truth of Oriental costume: I congratulated her. "You will presently be delighted with me," said she. "I have just been on a journey to Bourdeaux; I found there but a very small theatre; to which I was obliged to accommodate myself. The thought struck me of reducing my action to it, and of making trial of that simple declamation you have so often required of me. It had the greatest success there: I am going to try it again here, on this little theatre. Go and hear me. If it succeed as well, farewel my old declamation."

'The event surpassed her expectation and mine. It was no longer the actress, it was Roxane herself, whom the audience thought they saw and heard. The astonishment, the illusion, the enchantment, was extreme. All inquired where are we? They had heard nothing like it. I saw her after the play; I would speak to her of the success she had just had. "Ah!" said she to me, "don't you see that it ruins me? In all my characters, the costume must now be observed; the truth of declamation requires that of dress; all my rich stage-wardrobe is from this moment rejected; I lose 1200 guineas worth of dresses; but the sacrifice is made. You shall see me here within a week playing *Electre* to the life, as I have just played Roxane."

'It was the *Electre* of Crébillon. Instead of the ridiculous hoop, and the ample mourning robe, in which we had been accustomed to see her in this character, she appeared in the simple habit of a slave, dishevelled, and her arms loaded with long chains. She was admirable in it; and some time afterward, she was still more sublime in the *Electre* of Voltaire. This part, which Voltaire had made her declaim with a continual and monotonous lamentation, acquired, when spoken naturally, a beauty unknown to himself; for on seeing her play it on his theatre at Ferney, where she went to visit him, he exclaimed, bathed in tears and transported with admiration, "*It is not I who wrote that, 'tis she: she has created her part!*" And indeed, by the infinite shades she introduced, by the expression she gave to the passions with which this character is filled, it was perhaps that of all others in which she was most astonishing.

'Paris, as well as Versailles, recognised in these changes the true tragick accent, and the new degree of probability that the strict observance of costume gave to theatrical action. Thus, from that time all the actors were obliged to abandon their fringed gloves, their voluminous wigs, their feathered hats, and all the fantastick apparel, that had so long shocked the sight of all men of taste. Lekain himself followed the example of mademoiselle Clairon; and from that moment their talents, thus perfected, excited mutual emulation, and were worthy rivals of each other.'

Marmontel speaks thus of an interview with Massillon;

'In one of our walks to Beauregard, the country-house of the bishoprick, we had the happiness to visit the venerable Massillon. The reception this illustrious old man gave us, was so full of kindness, his presence and the accent of his voice made so lively and tender an impression on me, that the recollection of it is one of the most grateful that I retain of what passed in my early years.

'At that age, when the affections of the mind and soul have, reciprocally, so sudden a communication, when reason and sentiment act and re-act on each other with so much rapidity, there is no one to whom it has not sometimes happened, on seeing a great man, to imprint on his forehead the features that distinguished the character of his soul and genius. It was thus that among the wrinkles of that countenance already decayed, and in those eyes that were soon to be extinguished, I thought I could still trace the expression of that eloquence, so sensible, so tender, so sublime, so profoundly penetrating, with which I had just been enchanted in his writings. He permitted us to mention them to him, and to offer him the homage of the religious tears they had made us shed.'

The origin of Marmontel's celebrated Tales does him great credit. He had procured the appointment of Editor of the Mercure François for Boissy, a man of letters in distress; Boissy found himself unequal to the task of supporting the publication, and applied to Marmontel for his friendly aid:

'Destitute of assistance, finding nothing passable in the papers that were left him, Boissy wrote me a letter, which was a true picture of distress. "You will in vain have given me the Mercure," said he; "this favour will be lost on me, if you do not add that of coming to my aid. Prose or verse, whatever you please, all will be good from your hand. But hasten to extricate me from the difficulty in which I now am; I conjure you in the name of that friendship which I have vowed to you for the rest of my life."

'This letter roused me from my slumber; I beheld this unhappy editor a prey to ridicule, and the Mercure decried in his hands, should he let his penury be seen. It put me in a fever for the whole night; and it was in this state of crisis and agitation that I first conceived the idea of writing a tale. After having passed the night without closing my eyes, in rolling in my fancy the subject of that I have entitled *Alcibiade*, I got up, wrote it at a breath, without laying down my pen, and sent it off. This tale had an unexpected success. I had required that the name of its author should be kept secret. No one knew to whom to attribute it; and at Helvétius's dinner, where the finest connoisseurs were, they did me the honour of ascribing it to Voltaire, or to Montesquieu.'

POETRY.

ORIGINAL.

For the Anthology.

PROSOPOPŒIA UMBRÆ.

Æmula Dîs, Divisque prior; Diva ipsa futura,
Me nisi perpetùam tenebris damnâsset opacis
Jam Deus à primâ crescentis origine mundi,
Quum solis radios et cœli accenderit ignes.
Illa ego sum terreni imitatrix corporis umbra,
Cœlestisque inimica; mihi ultima Tartara parent,
Plutonisque domus, Atlantæique recessus.
Nec proavos quæras, primamve ab origine gentem,
Ipsa tero membris semper redeuntibus ævum.
Atque mihi proprio vires reparantur ab hoste.
Dant vitam, queis vitam adimo; nutricia præstant
Queis ego quotidie exequias et funera duco.
Maxima naturæ populis arcana retexi,
Sideraque et vasti laqueata palatia cœli.
Admovi, astrorumque choros mortalibus oclis.
Quod tenebræ luces, quod lux optata tenebras
Recipiat, nostrum est; requiem præbemus amicam
Omnibus, alterno recreantes frigore terram.
Quin et, dum nigris orbem circumvolo pennis,
Musarum quicunque sacris doctæque litârunt
Palladis, ingenii condunt monimenta, viamque
Affectant liquido super aurea sidera cœlo.
Per me pyramidûm quondam fastigia mensus
Dicitur esse Thales; per me, qui fulmine linguæ
Fregit Alexandri patrem, sibi judicis aures
Attentas fecit. Nec me tam credere vilem
Quam videor, par est; et me Narcissus amavit.
Cæteraque ut desint; quantum est, ostendere cœli
In terris faciem? quid, quod neque cætera desunt.
Seu formam aspicias, non me Cepheis virgo
Pulchrior, aut blando vate dilecta Phaoni.
Seu rapit attonitum generis te fama vetusti;
Ante fui, quam tempus erat; seu pectora tangit
Ingenii sollertis honos; mihi Cynthia, fratre
Cum nitido, et magni debent præcordia mundi,
Naturæ in latebris penitus, penitusque reposita,
Detecta esse oculis per me mortalibus ultro.
Sive es mirator rerum: mirabere nostras.
Nempe triumphatum Ponti de rege superbo
Præsidio unius nostro quis nescit? ego ictus
Sustinui cunctos, quum tu, Romane, lateres,
Illustrem ex tuto jaculis dum conficis hostem.
Haud aliter molem clypei septemplicis unus
Opposuit ducibus Teucrisque ruentibus Ajax.
Et tamen huic pugna, si verum quæris, in illâ
Plus laudis merui; clypeum nempe ille; ego memet
Hostibus objeci; et quod plus mireris, inermem.
Nec virtus hæc una mea est. Scit Flavius olim
Si mihi te victo multum debere, Vitelli.
Scit Marius, fusis Numidis, captoque Jugurthâ.
Quin ducibus magno stetit ignoratio nostri.
Quos inter Niciæ, qui, classem educere portu

[24 ..'per me,' &c. Demosthenes.

[30 ..'Seu formam,' etc. *Forma Umbræ.*
[25 ..'sibi judices,' etc. Fabula '*Asini umbra.*'

[38 ..'Sive es,' etc. *Virtus.*
[52 ...'Quos inter Niciæ,' &c. Vid. *Plin. lib. X. cap.* 12.

Dum pavet Actæam, magico contamine victum
Credens rorifluæ vultum intabescere lunæ,
Cecropias afflixit opes, quæ Martia corda
Romulidum simili faceret trepidare tumultu,
Docti animos nisi firmâsset sollertia Galli.
Quid referam, quantos usus mortalibus ægris,
Quos pecori præstem? Quis non umbracula, quis non
Audivit gratas platani potantibus umbras?
Munere quis nostro Phæbeam lampada nescit
Villosæ silva caudæ prohibere Sciurum?
Quin, quibus usque pedum Titan defenditur umbra.
Umbripedes populi, qua Sol violentior arva
Æthiopûm recta despectat cuspide, nostrum
Agnoscant meritum. Quin et decus addimus illi,
Quidquid Apellæi gaudent animâsse colores.
Utque artis pars nunc tantum, sic decuit olim
Tota mihi, ad radios quum circumscribere solis
Humanam docui propria sub imagine formam.
Sed taceo; ne, quod reprehendit Tullius, omnes
Falsæ gloriolæ videar sectarier umbras.

...

L.

[71 ... 'Tullius.'—*Orat. in Pisone.*

From Sewall's Poems.

The following Speech, for substance, was actually made by a noted gamester in N.H. on obtaining a verdict against the unanimous opinion of the judges, by tampering with the jury.

WE *cut* and *shuffled*, stirr'd our stumps,
But z—ds! they put us to our *trumps*.
They held *court*-cards, led *suit* beside,
With *all four honours* on their side.
They *play'd the deuce!* but we more brave
Finess'd on *hearts*, and *play'd the knave*.
We better knew the *pack* to fix,
And won the game at last by *tricks!*

EXTRACT FROM SOUTHEY'S "MADOC."

MAID of the golden locks, far other lot
May gentle heaven assign thy happier love,
Blue-eyed Senena! . . They loitered on,
Along the windings of the grassy shore,
In such free interchange of inward thought,
As the calm hour invited; or at times,
Willingly silent, listening to the bird
Whose one repeated melancholy note,
By oft repeating melancholy made,
Solicited the ear; or gladlier now
Harkening that chearful one, who knoweth all
The song of all the winged choristers,
And, in one sequence of melodious sounds,
Pours all their music. But one wilder strain
At fits came o'er the water; rising now,
Now with a dying fall, in sink and swell
More exquisitely sweet than ever art
Of man evoked from instrument of touch,
Or beat, or breath. It was the evening gale,
Which, passing o'er the harp of Caradoc,
Swept all its chords at once, and blended all
Their music into one continuous flow.
The solitary bard, beside his harp
Leant underneath a tree, whose spreading boughs,
With broken shade that shifted to the breeze,
Played on the waving waters. Overhead
There was the leafy murmur, at his foot
The lake's perpetual ripple, and from far,
Borne on the modulating gale, was heard
The roaring of the mountain cataract. . .
A blind man would have loved the lovely spot.

For the Monthly Anthology.

SHIPWRECK.

[*Written in* 1802.]

WINTER, clad in rude array,
Held his empire o'er the day;
Chill the sleety north-east blew,
High its surges ocean threw.
Now they lash the sandy shore,
Whitening on the rocks they roar.
Late the syren southern gale
Wanton'd in the swelling sail;
Late secure the vessel rov'd
O'er the wave, that gently mov'd.
The mariners exulting view
The dim-discovered mountains blue.
Then the storm began to lour,
Fiercely beat the sleety shower,

Gathering ice the tackle binds,
Wildly howl to loosen'd winds.
To direct no friendly light
Glimmers through the gloom of night;
But the lamp, that erst so sure
Mark'd the course, thick snows obscure.
Now each unavailing care
Yields to helpless, wild despair.
Louder now the tempest raves,
Higher swell the heaving waves;
Now they dash the feeble skiff
On the craggy, pointed cliff;
Now ascends the dying groan;...
Nought avails the widow's moan,
Nought the tear by pity shed
O'er the relicks of the dead.

H.

EPISTLE TO A YOUNG FRIEND.

By Burns.

1.

I LANG hae thought, my youthfu' friend,
A something to have sent you,
Tho' it should serve nae ither end
Than just a kind memento;
But how the subject theme may gang,
Let time and chance determine;
Perhaps it may turn out a Sang;
Perhaps, turn out a Sermon.

2.

Ye'll try the world soon, my lad,
And, Andrew dear, believe me,
Ye'll find mankind an unco' squad,
And muckle they may grieve ye:
For care and trouble set your thought,
E'en when your end's attained;
And a' your views may come to nought,
Where ev'ry nerve is strained.

3.

I'll no say, men are villains a';
The real, harden'd wicked,
Wha hae nae check but human law,
Are to a *few* restricted:
But Och, mankind are unco weak,
An' little to be trusted;
If SELF the wavering balance shake,
It's rarely right adjusted!

4.

Yet they wha *fa'* in Fortune's strife,
Their fate we should na censure,
For still th' important End of life
They equally may answer:
A man may hae an honest heart,
Tho' Poortith hourly stare him;
A man may tak a neebor's part,
Yet hae nae cash to spare him.

5.

Ay free, aff han', your story tell,
When wi' a bosom crony;
But still keep something to yoursel
Ye scarcely tell to ony.
Conceal yoursel as weel's ye can
Frae critical dissection;
But keek thro' ev'ry other man,
Wi' sharpen'd sly inspection.

6.

The sacred lowe o' weel-plac'd love,
Luxuriantly indulge it;
But never tempt th' illicit rove,
Tho' naething should divulge it;
I wave the quantum o' the sin;
The hazard of concealing;
But Och! it hardens a' within,
And petrifies the feeling!

7.

To catch Dame Fortune's golden smile,
Assiduous wait upon her;
And gather gear by ev'ry wile
That's justify'd by Honour;
Not for to hide it in a hedge,
Nor for a train-attendant:
But for the glorious privilege
Of being independent.

8.

The fear o' Hell 's a hangman's whip,
To haud the wretch in order;
But where ye feel your Honour grip,
Let that ay be your border:
It's slightest touches, instant pause...
Debar a' side-pretences;
And resolutely keep it's laws,
Uncaring consequences.

9.

The great Creator to revere,
Must sure become the Creature;
But still the preaching cant forbear,
And ev'n the rigid feature:
Yet ne'er with Wits prophane to range,
Be complaisance extended;
An atheist-laugh's a poor exchange
For Deity offended!

10.

When ranting round in Pleasure's ring,
Religion may be blinded;
Or if she gie a random sting,
It may be little minded;
But when on Life we're tempest-driv'n,
A conscience but a canker——
A correspondence fix'd wi' Heav'n
Is sure a noble anchor!

11.

Adieu, dear amiable youth!
Your heart can ne'er be wanting!
May Prudence, Fortitude, and Truth
Erect your brow undaunting!
In ploughman phrase, "God send you speed",
Still daily to grow wiser;
And may ye better reck the rede,
Than ever did th' adviser!

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For *MARCH*, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ART. 13.

Reports of cases argued and determined in the supreme judicial court of the state of Massachusetts from Sept. 1804 *to June* 1805, *both inclusive. By Ephraim Williams, Esq. Vol. I.* 8*vo. pp.* 570. $5 bound. Northampton, published by S. & E. Butler. 1805.

We congratulate the publick on the appearance of the present work; the first-fruits of the office of reporter, lately established by authority of the legislature. In arbitrary governments, where the people have nothing to do with the laws but to obey them, a work of this kind would be highly useful, tho' hardly to be expected; for decisions and precedents, like acts of the legislature, limit the power of rulers and judges: but that a free people, whose boast it is, that they are governed by *laws* and not by *men*, should be totally indifferent to what passes in their courts of justice is a thing we should hardly credit, on less evidence than that of experience. What should we think of the legislature, if our statutes were to be found only in the books of the secretary's office? Would it not be deemed a most criminal violation of the rights of the people; the most obvious of which is, that of *knowing* the laws by which they are governed? And yet a moment's reflexion will serve to convince us, that it is no less so, that the decisions of our courts of justice should exist only in the breasts of the judges, or in the lumber of a clerk's office.

The law of this commonwealth may be divided into two heads; the statute and the common law: and this latter is properly distinguishable into two kinds, in respect to the source from which it is derived; namely, what we had, before the revolution, adopted from the English law, and such general customs or usages (for we acknowledge no *particular* ones) as have prevailed in this state, and have acquired the force of law, though they make no part of the English system of jurisprudence. Of our statutes, much the greatest number are private or special; and of those which regard the whole community, a considerable number refer to the organization of the government. They are of a political, rather than a civil nature. Of those which prescribe rules of civil conduct to the citizens, rules for making and expounding contracts, principles of decision on the questions daily agitated in our courts of justice, the number is small; indeed, it may be a question, whether our system of jurisprudence would suffer an injury by their total repeal. Besides, the exposition of statutes necessarily belongs to the judicial courts. The spirit, rather than the letter of the law, is what we are bound to regard. Plowden compares an act of the legislature to a nut. The words are only the husk, or shell; the sense or meaning is the kernel or soul of the law. It is the business of the courts to strip off the husk. He, therefore, who would understand the meaning of the statutes, must carefully study the judicial constructions, which, from time to time, have been put upon them.

But the maxims and rules of the common law greatly exceed those prescribed by statute, both in number and importance; and of these, judicial decisions furnish the *only* evidence. What is the common law of this state? A perusal of the records of the English courts of justice, books of reports, the treatises of the learned sages of the profession, preserved and handed down from the times of highest antiquity, will furnish the answer as it respects that part of our laws, which we have borrowed from the English; but how is the line to be drawn between what we have adopted from the English law, and what has been rejected as inapplicable? Our constitution furnishes us with a rule on the subject. Whatever has "been adopted, used, and approved in the province, colony, or state of Massachusetts Bay, and usually practised on in the courts of law," excepting such parts "as are repugnant to the rights and liberties contained in the constitution," is law here. But how shall we be enabled to apply this rule? where shall we look for the evidence of this *adoption*, *usage*, and *approbation*; the evidence of what has been the *usual* practice in our courts of law? We have no books of reports; no evidence of our judicial decisions; no treatises of learned sages of the profession.[*] History is of great use in explaining laws; but no one has taken the trouble, with reference to this subject, to examine the history of the state, from its settlement to the revolution. The legal customs and usages, which have sprung up among us, have never been collected. In short, our common law is truly an *unwritten* law. It is merely oral, or communicated by word of mouth. It rests altogether on uncertain tradition.

There is some uncertainty and contradiction in judicial decisions, compiled even by eminent lawyers, judges, and reporters appointed by authority, and preserved in print. But will there not be a thousand times more uncertainty and contradiction; or rather, will there be any certainty, any uniformity, in decisions never committed to writing? What would be the condition of our statute law, if it rested solely on the memory of the members of the legislature? And what should occasion a difference in favour of judicial decisions, which are the proper and only evidence of those laws, which are ratified by the tacit consent of the people, when they depend on the memory of lawyers, or even of the judges who pronounced them. It is not an easy task to become thoroughly acquainted with the principles of the English law. It is a task of much greater difficulty, to become master of the law of this commonwealth. Our statutes are probably worse penned than the British; and we have no chart to direct us in the search of our legal customs and usages. Our law does not deserve the name of science. Our judges cannot know, if they would, with any good degree of certainty, the points which have heretofore been decided. Is it then wonderful, that they should pursue the easier, but more dangerous course of deciding all questions according to the impressions on their own minds, at the moment; and then substitute their own private opinions in the place of law? Such judges cannot be said to *declare* the law; they *make* it. Like arbitrators, they make their award, and deliver their own opinions.

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[*] At Rome the opinions of the *jurisconsulti*, called the *responsa prudentum*, were of great weight; and a considerable part of the Roman law is founded upon them.

Some have imagined, that the records furnish all the necessary information on this subject. It may be observed, in the first place, that our records are far from being as perfect as they ought to be. The business is intrusted to clerks, often incapable, and too often remiss in the performance of the duties of the office. But admitting the records to be framed and kept in the best possible manner, still, from the nature of the thing, they furnish but little evidence of our legal customs; because they rarely contain a sufficient statement of the facts, on which the decision is grounded, and never the arguments and reasoning of the court.

We have made these brief observations, as an introduction to the consideration of the work before us. We trust there are few of our readers, who are not equally with us impressed with the conviction that the *design* of this work is highly important; that it is one, which, if well executed, promises more publick utility than any measure our government has adopted since the formation of the constitution. A correct history of what passes in courts of justice is of incalculable advantage. With a single exception, it is the best of all books. It perpetuates the labours and sound maxims of wise and learned judges. It serves to make the path of duty plain before the people, by making the law a *known rule* of conduct; and for the same reason, it diminishes litigation. It has a tendency to limit the discretion of judges; and consequently, increases liberty. Where there are no fixed established maxims of law, the citizens are in the same situation as farmers, whose lands are not divided by any monuments or known bounds. They will be very likely to go to law, and very unlikely to obtain satisfactory decisions. Maxims of law are like landmarks.

"Limes agro positus litem ut discerneret arvis."

How far the work before us is calculated to answer these valuable ends, we shall hereafter have occasion to consider.

With regard to what is the best method of reporting, we are sensible that a difference of opinion prevails among those, most conversant with the subject. Some have been careful to state the facts at great length, to insert a full copy of the pleadings, the arguments of the counsel, as diffusely as they were delivered at the bar, the cases and authorities cited and relied on, and the opinions of the judges, at full length; while others have given a very abridged state of the case, together with the mere point decided; omitting not only the arguments of the bar, but the most of the reasoning of the court. It is obvious to remark, that each of these methods has its advantages and disadvantages. They are extremes; and in this, as in every thing else, "in medio tutissimus ibis." Prolixity fatigues, while extreme brevity leads to obscurity. But there is a conciseness, which is no enemy to perspicuity, and a prolixity, which confounds, instead of enlightening. Perhaps it is not in the power of a reporter to say just enough for some readers, without saying too much for others. But we are decidedly of opinion, that modern reports are, in general, too prolix. Expunge from them every thing not material in the statement of facts; every thing from the arguments, which does not bear on the question; and every thing given for the reasons of the decision which is wholly foreign and irrelevant, and many a huge folio would dwindle into a duodecimo. The eight or ten volumes of Vesey jun. would be reduced to two or three; Dallas would be reduced one half; Wallace* to a few pages; Cranch would make No. 1, of Vol. I., and Root would entirely disappear. But our readers must not conclude from what we have said, that reports may not, in our judgment, be too concise. We are not believers in the "short cuts to knowledge." In reports it is indispensable, that all the material facts be correctly stated, the pleadings, when the case turns upon them, the judgment of the court, and the outlines of the grounds or reasons of the decision. Nothing trifling or impertinent should be inserted, and nothing material omitted.

Of the qualifications of a reporter, there can be but one opinion. He must possess industry to collect suitable materials, judgment to select and arrange them, and great accuracy in every thing. In a word, that is the best book of reports, which contains the greatest number of cases upon important points, in which the reasons and grounds of the decisions are so clearly set down that they cannot easily be mistaken; and he is the best reporter, whose works approach the nearest to this standard.

Mr. Williams, in a very modest and well written preface, which prepossessed us in his favour, and led us to anticipate something good, appears to have been fully aware of the difficulties, with which he had to contend, and of the advantages and disadvantages of the different methods in use of reporting cases. It seems to have been his *endeavour* to avoid the extremes of prolixity and brevity. Where he deemed the points new and abstruse, he professes to be copious. In cases of less importance, and especially in matters of practice, he aims at conciseness. Not having the materials for reports, with which his office furnished him, submitted to our inspection, we are unable to determine whether he has omitted any case which ought to have been given to the publick. But we have no hesitation in saying, that some of those selected might have been spared, without any injury to the work. For example, what must foreigners think of the state of our jurisprudence, when it is thought necessary twice to state, as solemn decisions of our supreme court, that an administrator, and an individual in his own right, cannot join in prosecuting an action? [p. 104, 480.] That an action *for money had and received* does not lie for a surety, who has paid the debt of his principal? [p. 139.] Who ever supposed it did? A reporter should always bear in mind, that it is only cases of "weight and difficulty" that should be reported.

Some of the cases are spun out to a most unreasonable length, and contain matters which, for the honour of the state, we think, should never have appeared in print. If individuals will use or rather *abuse* the liberty of the press, in publishing what disgraces them and us in the judgment of our neighbours and of foreigners, it cannot be help-ed; but Mr. W. is an officer of the government, and, as such, bound at all times to consult its honour. A reporter, like a witness, should report nothing but the truth; but he is not bound to state all that passes in court. We shall not much regret it, if foreigners should be disposed to question his correctness, when he states, that the first law officer of the commonwealth persevered in an attempt to file a plea in abatement [Martin v. the Commonwealth in errour, p. 353] after several general imparlances, and after a plea in bar had been pleaded at a former term. If there is any principle of law well established in our courts, it is, that a plea in abatement cannot be received in another term, after a general imparlance. We are at a loss to understand what the attorney-general means by saying, "that the court of exchequer, to which an appeal from the admiralty lies, has not judiciary power. No writ of errour lies to that court." [p. 373.]

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* Reports of Cases adjudged in the circuit court of the United States, for the third circuit.

Some of the cases in this volume are so very *particular* in their facts and circumstances, that they cannot operate as precedents on other occasions. They should have been omitted. It seems we are indebted to the grand jury for the county of Plymouth for one needless report. [Commonwealth v. O'Hearsey, p. 137.] The attorney-general drew the indictment against his own opinion, out of *respect to the grand jury*. Possibly the reporter, following the attorney-general's example, inserted it in his collection, against his better judgment. By this means, we poor reviewers have been obliged to peruse it much against ours. We cannot but think that the poor culprit has conducted, in this business, with the most propriety. He confessed the facts, and left it to the court, without troubling them with counsel, in so plain a case, to declare the laws. We hope all concerned will profit by this example.

We are also of opinion, that the arguments of some of the judges, in the case alluded to, [Martin v. the Commonwealth] as well as in many others, might have been condensed, with advantage to the publick, and without doing any injury to the arguments themselves. We are not agreeably impressed with "wordy eloquence" from the bench; still less, with attempts at eloquence without success. As the style of laws should be concise, plain, and simple, so decisions of courts, which declare the law, should be neither diffuse, tumid, nor rhetorical. The language of judges should correspond with the dignity of the office, and with the majesty of the subject. Great ornament is as ill-becoming in the style of a "reverend judge," as a black gown, turned up with pink, (the dress of the federal judges) is unbecoming his person.

We believe that there is a style and manner peculiarly fitted to the bench. An eloquent harangue at the bar or in the senate would be unseemly from the mouth of a venerable judge. The sages of the law, who are "legibus patriæ optime instituti," who may justly boast of the "viginti annorum lucubrationes," should not for a moment be suspected of sacrificing precision to the harmony of periods. Lord Mansfield was a scholar and an orator; but his eloquence at the bar, in the senate, and on the bench, were as much unlike each other, as the eloquence, of which we complain, is unlike either.

After all, we are not enemies to true eloquence. And when our judges shall have taken as much pains in forming opinions in the cases before them as Lord Mansfield *always* did, and shall have spent as many years in the acquisition of polite and elegant literature as he did, we shall not object to their being as eloquent upon the bench as his lordship. It will no doubt subject us to the "suspicion of dulness," yet we shall not scruple to declare, that in a judge we prefer labour to genius, and painstaking to ingenuity.

Among other instances of prolixity that occur in these reports, may be mentioned, the case of Smith v. Bowker, [p. 76] which occupies nearly six pages. By the way, the defendant is called *Joseph* and *Jotham*; which is the true name?

We think something like the following would have comprized every thing material in the case. If we are correct in this, it shews how much might have been gained by a judicious abridgment of many of the cases in this volume.

"This was trespass for taking the plaintiff's cows. A case was stated for the opinion of the court, in substance, that the present plaintiff had before made a promissory note to one Sweetser, who purchased a writ of attachment thereon against the plaintiff, calling him of Orange, in the county of H., instead of Athol, in the county of W., his true place of abode. Service was made by J.S., deputy sheriff of H. county, that he had attached a hat, the property of A. S. named in the writ, and left him a summons for his appearance. This summons was left at the dwelling house of the plaintiff in Athol, in which town he has always lived. There was no appearance, and judgment was rendered, by default, at the first term, and execution issued and directed to the sheriffs, &c. of W. and H. counties, describing the parties as in the writ of attachment, and was delivered to the defendant, a deputy sheriff in W. county, who, by virtue thereof, took the cows mentioned in the declaration, and sold them to satisfy the execution. For the defendant was cited Crawford v. Satchwell, 2 Stra. 1218. The court was clearly of opinion, that the defendant was not a trespasser. He was justified by his precept in doing what he did. Smith should have appeared and pleaded the wrong addition of place in abatement. By not doing so he waved the mistake, and he now comes too late to avail himself of it. Judgment for the defendant."

Simmons &c. v. W. C. Apthorp &c. [p. 99] petition for a review, or new trial. The case is not long, but it might have been shorter. It would have been sufficient to state, as in the margin, that it was determined by the court, that on such petitions the petitioner shall be confined, on the hearing, to the allegations in the petition.

The case of Hall v. Hall [p. 101] is too trifling to merit insertion. The decision is also, to say the least of it, questionable. It was probably made without any consideration. We think the oath of a witness to prove payment as "high" and better evidence, than the bare receipt of a collector of taxes.

Clap v. Joslyn in review [p. 129]. The circumstances of this case were very particular, and such, it is to be hoped, as will never happen again. It was unnecessary to state them. All that seems useful to mention is, that in this case the court settled it as a rule of practice, that in an action of review, granted by the court under the statute, the court may, on a rule to shew cause, quash the writ for want of notice to the adverse party, of the application for a review; or, the court may then hear the parties on the merits of the petition for a new trial.

Walker &c. v. Maxwell, [p. 104.] In this case two new questions were decided. 1st, that the allegation, by a defendant who belongs to another state in the union, that the debt for which he is now sued has been attached in his hands as garnishee by process of foreign attachment in his own state, at the suit of a creditor there,...*that all the proceedings in the foreign attachment were pursuant to the statute in such state*, is not sufficient. The statute should have been set forth, that the court might see whether the proceedings were authorized by it or not. 2d, that amendment may be allowed, after argument on demurrer. We have called these *new* points; the second was not a new question, being the same that was decided in Holbrook v. Pratt, [p. 96] but the decision was *new*, being directly contrary to the former one.

This case occupies twelve pages, little less than a fortieth part of the volume, and costs every reader 10 cents,...a great deal more than it is worth. It was not necessary, to state the pleadings; that part printed in italics and the substance of the rest would have been sufficient. There is nothing in these records of pleadings so excellent as to merit insertion at length.

It is but justice to Mr. W. to say, that his statements of facts seem much more correct than those drawn up by the counsel, which are often stuffed with impertinent matter; and in some instances so erroneous, as to require correction by the reporter.

Other examples might be given of statements and reports unnecessarily prolix. There are also cases where the statements are incomplete. But we shall leave it to the sagacity of our learned readers to discover and point them out. On this subject we shall barely mention some slight inaccuracies in the case of Harris v. Clap, &c. [p. 308].

It would appear from many parts of the report that the judgment was *at law* and not *in equity*. And yet the chief justice speaks (p. 319, 320) of the surety coming into the court as a court of equity for relief.

The four judges, who were of opinion for the plaintiff, agree that the interest on the award shall commence at the expiration of 120 days from the acceptance of it in the common pleas, which was 1st Tuesday January 1798; and yet the interest appears to have been cast from the 13th June 1798, the time of commencing the suit on the bond. The judges do not seem to be agreed as to the time, from which interest *might* be computed on the penalty. Thacher J. fixes on one hundred and twenty days after the judgment on the award, as the period. Sewall J. (we think with more propriety) fixes on the demand, that is, the commencement of the suit in the case before the court. It would seem that the judgment was at law. The debt adjudged to the plaintiff was $5000 the penalty of the bond, and $1480,55 cents, as damages for the detention of the debt; and yet the true measure of damages seems to have been declared to be the penalty and interest on it from the commencement of the suit. What but equity prevented the plaintiff from recovering *full interest*, viz. $2025? The defendant did not ask equity. We have not looked into this point. Perhaps courts of law assume the right of limiting interest to the equity of the case. The doctrine may be, that the penalty is forfeited, and that the court, in their discretion, give *such damages*, and no more, for the detention of the debt, as the plaintiff shall have sustained. The one shilling usually given in England seems to imply, that some damages must be given, and that less than the whole interest may be given. It has not been usual here to give any damages for the detention of the penalty of a bond, and the framers of the statute of 1 March, 1799 [III. p. 29] do not seem to have conceived, that interest might be given on the penalty or damages for the detention of it.

We were singularly struck with the case of Porter v. Bussey. [p. 436.] No reason is given for the decision, but we are favoured with a very good argument of one of the learned judges against it. We cannot say what our opinion might have been, if we had been favoured with the reasons of the court. At present we incline to the opinion of the judge, who dissented.

Doubtless other cases besides those mentioned will occur on a careful perusal of this volume, in which the critical and learned reader may be inclined to think, that the facts have not been clearly and concisely stated, and the grounds of the decision perspicuously reported. But they are not very numerous, nor are the defects perhaps very important. We think the greatest errour is on the side of prolixity. The author has too often, we believe, "yielded to inferiour sense, and doubted his own;" a fault not very common at the present day, and which the reporter will probably mend, if he continue to follow the trade of an author. At the beginning of the work we observed a small impropriety, which the reporter seems himself to have corrected at an early stage. We mean the describing of the action immediately after the names of the parties: thus, "Debt. This was an action of debt." "Assumpsit. This was an action of assumpsit," &c. But there is another redundancy, which runs through the whole work. We allude to his always naming the judges who concurred in the opinion stated. We think the publick ought to know, what judges decided; but we are of opinion, that this knowledge would be better communicated by stating, in general terms, that the unanimity of the court is to be understood in every case, where a difference of opinion is not expressly stated; and where all the judges did not attend, at any term, or in any particular cause, a short note at the beginning or end of such term or cause, as the case may be, would have saved a great number of very unnecessary repetitions.

Where a judge adds nothing to the grounds or reasons of the decision, it seems quite unnecessary to state that *such* —— justice thought the plaintiff was entitled to judgment, and not the defendant. It would be sufficient simply to say, that such justice or justices concurred.

It has appeared to us, that Mr. W. is not particular enough in his method of citing statutes. In some instances we are left to conjecture what statute was intended. The date of our statutes is generally given, but the titles being sometimes omitted, and several having been enacted on the same day, considerable time is sometimes required to find the one referred to. We readers expect that authors will spare no pains to promote our ease and convenience. It would have been easy for Mr. W. to have referred to the volume, page, and even section of the act. When he has done this, we have found our labour considerably lessened.

The learned judges [in p. 60, 61, &c.] speak of the statutes of Edward the third, and James the first, relating to the office of justice of the peace. Either they or the reporter should have informed us, what particular statutes were intended. During the long reign of the former, no less than three hundred and eighty-six statutes were made. It is possible the judges referred to Edward III. anno 1, c. 16, 2 c. 6, 4 c. 2, 9 c. 5, 18 stat. II. c. 2, 18 stat. IV. 34 c. 1. James I. anno 7, c. 5, 21 c. 12. The same remark applies to some other English statutes alluded to in the work.

The references to the very few authorities cited are generally correct; but what book does the author mean by I. Wm.'s Abr. 427, [cited in p. 50]? Does he mean I. P. Wm's Rep. p. 429, or Wm.'s Dig. of the stat. law, which is in a single volume in our edition?

We have observed also a loose method of quoting passages from statutes, &c. These quotations, in our opinion, should be exact. The author is not obliged to take any more than what he deems apposite; but he should cite literally. And though perhaps the variations in this volume are not very material, yet we condemn the practice as leading to errour.

On a careful perusal of this volume, but not with any particular view to find errours in grammar, or errours of the press, we have discovered, as we conceive, a number, not noted by the author in his errata. Some of these we shall subjoin to our report. They are sufficiently numerous to prove, that our authors and printers are too negligent, when they appear before the tribunal of the publick. To the haste with which the work appears to have been prepared for the press, and run through it, is no doubt to be attributed many of these mistakes. But, we think, the publick would have gained more in correctness, than they would have lost by delay, if the publication had been deferred a few months. We can assure our readers, that we have not wished to find errours. It would have given us more pleasure to have pronounced the work faultless. Mr. W. is a lawyer, and from his notes it would appear, that he is no mean one. We consider these notes as judicious, and useful in illustrating, and sometimes correcting the text. We wished to meet with them more frequently. Professional gentlemen are greatly indebted to Mr. Douglas for his learned and careful notes in his very excellent reports. When the decisions of the King's Bench, with lord Mansfield at the head of it, admit of illustration and correction from notes of a reporter, no court in this country can complain of this freedom taken with their determinations. It has, besides, the sanction of Mr. Justice Foster's opinion and example.

It is not, perhaps, expected that we should review the decisions and opinions of the court, contained in this volume. This task will be undertaken by the several members of the profession, labouring in their vocation, by the publick, by our judicial tribunals, and we hope by the learned judges themselves. Decisions in this state have been hitherto so little regarded, that, we have no doubt, some of these will be questioned; and that succeeding judges will go upon broader ground, than that avowed in England, where it is held, that judges are bound by determinations previously and solemnly made, where the same points come again in litigation; except where the decisions are *most evidently* contrary to reason, *manifestly* absurd or unjust, or *clearly* contrary to the divine law. It would, perhaps, be going too far to say, that any of the judicial opinions recorded in this volume are deserving of these harsh epithets; and yet we will venture to predict that some of them will be found incorrect; and that they will neither receive the sanction of succeeding judges, nor the approbation of the sages of the law in the other states. We will venture to include in this number the decision [Bartlett v. Knight. p. 401] contrary to a former one in this state, that a judgment, brought from another state in the union, has not the same effect here, which it would have had if used in the state in which it was recovered.* The reasoning of the learned judges (if it merits to be called reasoning) in support of their opinion, carries little weight with it. The contrary was decided in the circuit court of the U. S. in Pennsylvania [Armstrong v. Carson's Ex'rs. 2. Dall. Rep. 302]. We think, with Mr. Justice Wilson, that whatever doubts there might be on the words of the constitution, the act of congress has effectually removed them, having declared in direct terms, that the record shall have the same *effect* in the court into which it is carried, as in the court from which it was taken. We are the more dissatisfied with this decision, because it *seems* to savour of a spirit of disunion. It has some appearance of a preference (which, we fear, is unjust) of our judicial proceedings to those of the other states in the union.

We cannot subscribe to some of the opinions expressed in the case of Foster v. Abbot Adm'r. [p. 234.] We think the facts of the case furnished a complete bar. What do the learned judges mean by a decree of insolvency? If they mean a decree of distribution, do they intend to assert that, till this decree is made, a creditor, whose claim is rejected by the commissioners, and who does not prosecute by way of appeal according to the statute, may sue at common law?

Nor can we yield our assent to the decision in the case of Fales v. Thompson, [p. 134] on the point that the assignees of a bankrupt are not entitled to come in and prosecute a real action commenced by the bankrupt.

In a case, circumstanced as that was, we incline to the opinion that the deed of Asa Thompson, the father, was fraudulent as against the plaintiff.

Other decisions might be mentioned as exceptionable; but we forbear entering further into the subject. If the learned judges should be disposed to think, that we have already gone too far, we trust that we shall have their forgiveness, when they consider that we have differed less in opinion with the court, than *they* have differed from each other. We can assure them, that the observations we have made, have not proceeded from a desire, on our part, to depreciate their learning or talents, for which we have the most cordial respect; nor with a view to lessen the value of Mr. W.'s labours; for we believe, they will prove advantageous to the publick, and honourable, we sincerely wish we could add profitable, to him;—but principally, that we may have an opportunity of expressing our sincere conviction, that our system of jurisprudence is *radically* defective, and that we shall never have any thoroughly examined and well-digested determinations, decisions which will stand the test of time and serve as permament and fixed rules, so long as the judges, the depositaries of our law, are wandering through the state, without any fixed or permanent place of abode.

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* The Chief Justice and Justice Strong were not present when this decision was made.

The old proverb that a "rolling stone gathers no moss" is not more true, than that a court, constantly in motion, settles and establishes no principles of law. When the principal business of a court is to *travel* and *to retail* the law in every county town, is it reasonable to expect deep research, nice discrimination, or copious discussion on legal questions? Let our readers, figure to themselves our supreme judicial court in session at Lenox, for example. Questions of law and trials of fact are blended together on the docket. Amid the tumult and bustle necessarily incident to trials by jury, counsel occupied and teased with clients, witnesses, &c. it is easy to see how questions of law will be argued, even by eminent counsel. The judges, long absent from their families, can hardly be supposed to be perfectly at ease in their minds. Denied all access to books, and fatigued with the labours of the day, and liable, from their situation, to constant interruptions, they cannot so much as have an opportunity of communicating their sentiments, or of hearing one another's reasons. On Saturday morning they *must* pronounce judgment. Under such circumstances is it not cruel to expect an opinion, and ridiculous to expect a matured and well-digested one? The first thoughts which occur to a sensible, and if you please to a learned lawyer, on legal questions, may be reasonable, we grant; but they may not be *so* reasonable, *so* just, as after thoughts. The conjectural positions of natural reason, if not fortified by precedents, if not confirmed by elementary writers, or if they are not the result of much previous study and patient investigation, are always to be distrusted. A judge should think reasonably, but he should think and reason as one "long accustomed to the judicial decisions of his predecessors." He should be well versed in history, and especially in the history of the constitution, laws, manners, and customs of his own country.

The study of New-England antiquities, if we may be allowed the expression, is a necessary qualification of a New-England judge. We recollect having been, a few years ago, strongly impressed with its importance on reading Hazard's Historical Collections. It is well known, that in New-England much greater regard is shewn to probates and letters of administration brought from the neighbouring states, than is allowed by the English law, or by the laws and usages of the other states in the union. We have found our courts admitting executors and administrators to sue here on the authority of letters obtained in other states, tho' we do not recollect that we ever heard them explain the origin of this deviation from the English laws.

It appears from the journal of the commissioners of the united colonies, 19th of the 7th month, 1648, [II. Hazard, 124, 135] "certain propositions were *commended* by the commissioners to the consideration of the general courts of the several colonies," which, as far as relates to our present purpose, were, "that, for the more speedy and free passage of justice in each jurisdiction, wills, proved and certified in one of the colonies, without delay be accepted and allowed in the rest: and that administration, granted in the colony to which the intestate belonged, being duly certified, be in force for the gathering in of the estate in the rest of the colonies." By returns of the commissioners, it afterwards appeared, that all the general courts had assented. Would it not have been desirable, that the legislature should have made provision for publishing *all the old laws* of the province, rather than the *private acts* passed since the revolution? It is apprehended, that the knowledge of these is absolutely necessary to a thorough understanding of what is now considered as the common law of this commonwealth.

On perusal of this volume of reports we were forcibly struck with the small number of cases and authorities cited. Those of our own courts do not exceed ten, and those from the English books, probably, fall short of one hundred. Both lawyers and judges seem to be sparing of authorities, and liberal of declamation and reasoning upon general principles. In this particular the work unfortunately resembles Root's reports. Decisions, which rest altogether on the good sense of the judges who *make*, we ought not to say, who *pronounce* them, will be of little use. They do not make, what was uncertain before a permanent rule, for a rule implies something binding, something which is to be followed. In such cases the succeeding judge will be too apt to decide as his predecessor did, that is, according to his own private sentiments; and thus we cannot expect to have the scale of justice even and steady. It will waver with every new judge's opinion.

It would give us pain to find evidence in these reports, that our learned judges are unfriendly to the use of precedents; because it would indicate a greater reliance on their own abilities, (and we acknowledge they are great) than any men, in our opinion, are justified in entertaining. We are far from yielding a blind obedience to authorities. There are cases, which do not require them, and there are decided cases, which weigh little against clear and solid principles of reason. But it is well known, that the rules respecting contracts, which furnish a great branch of civil business, are, in general, the same in this and most European countries, being mostly derived from the civil law. We ought to avail ourselves of their decisions. It is safer for the wisest judge to lean on the matured and well-settled opinions on such questions, than on his own private judgment. We are pleased with lord Kenyon's sentiments on this subject. "Those, who are confident in their own superiour abilities," says that sound lawyer and able judge, "may perhaps fancy that they could make a new system of laws, less objectionable than that under which they live. I have not that confidence in mine; and am satisfied by the decisions and series of decisions of great and learned men, on the rules of law; and it is my duty, as well as my inclination, to follow and give effect to those rules." The same great judge, speaking of lord Hardwicke observes, that his knowledge of the law was most extraordinary; that he had been trained up very early in the pursuit, and had the greatest industry, as well as abilities, and in short was a consummate master of the profession. Yet he observes, "it was not the practice of this great judge to give his opinion on a sudden; but after mature consideration, and after hearing all that could be said for and against the point in question."*

Judges, who do not avail themselves of the "light and assistance" of former precedents, will be often found differing in opinion. In the course of nine months, and in the trial of little more than one hundred causes, we have observed a difference of opinion on the bench in no less than fifteen instances.

In the King's Bench, during a period of thirteen years, every rule, order, judgment, and opinion was unanimous. This gave weight to the decisions, certainty to the law, and infinite satisfaction to the suitors. How honourable to the law, and we may add, to the judges! They were all men of unquestionable abilities, and some of them, as lawyers, not inferiour to lord Mansfield himself. But all were "long personally accustomed to the judicial decisions of their predecessors;" all felt themselves bound by them. No one thought himself at liberty to "decide according to his own private judgment, but according to the known laws and customs of the land." This extraordinary unanimity affords the highest evidence of their *industry* as well as candour. Lord Mansfield alluding to it, says, "it never could have happened, if we did not among ourselves communicate our sentiments with great freedom; if we did not form our judgments without any prepossession to *first* thoughts." Too many of our judicial opinions are nothing but *first* thoughts.

If the present volume of reports should be less esteemed in the other states, than those of Mr. Dallas, we think it will not be on account of any superiority of Mr. D. over Mr. W. *as a reporter*: and we are very unwilling to admit that the judges of Pennsylvania, and especially of the common pleas, (of which court there are some excellent decisions in Dallas) are men of superiour abilities to the judges of our supreme court. If the decisions of the former should be deemed superiour, it must be ascribed to the favourable advantages under which they were made. In that state questions of law are principally decided in Philadelphia, and trials of fact and issues of law are not mixed up together as with us. The mention of Dallas's reports reminds us of a hint to Mr. W, suggested by the perusal of the volume before us. We have observed in a few instances expressions which it would have been well to have avoided, some of them peculiar to New-England. We have no doubt Mr. W. has taken pains on this subject; and we think the work is, in this respect, more correct than any legal work yet published in this state. Instead of summing up to the jury, Mr. W. speaks of *charging the jury*; for evidence produced by the prosecutor, he speaks of evidence produced by *government*; for first count in the indictment, in some instances, he says, *first charge* in the indictment; he uses, exceptions *made*, instead of *taken*, to a plea; motion reject-

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* If our judges have objections to the use of *English* authorities, there does not seem to be any reason why they should not avail themselves of American. We do not recollect to have met with a single quotation, either by the bench or at the bar, from Sullivan's Land Titles.

ed, for motion did not prevail; *holding* a term of the court, for session; letters of guardianship *set aside*, for *revoked* or *annulled*; passing a decree, for making a decree. We imagine the foregoing expressions will seldom be met with in correct legal writings. But our great objection to this work, as far as Mr. W. is responsible for it, is its bulk. Its size is unreasonably swelled by large type and large margin. By expunging all unnecessary matter, compressing what ought to be compressed, using a type similar to that used in the London edition of Burrow's reports, 2d edition, the work might have been comprized within something less than half its present bulk. It might have been published as the *first part* of *volume first*, to the great saving of the purse and time of purchasers and readers.

This work, though "sent to its account with all its imperfections on its head," (and they are not a few) we nevertheless recommend to the profession and to our readers. We sincerely hope Mr. W. will persevere. We wish him a double portion of the spirit of patience and labour. He already possesses judgment and accuracy of thinking; and we will venture to assure him, that he will in due time, if he faint not, inherit the reputation of an excellent reporter. Let him always bear in mind, and let it animate him to use double diligence, that the man, who employs his time and talents in transmitting to posterity with accuracy, precision, and true judgment, a history of cases of weight and difficulty, is a real benefactor to the publick: And surely there never was a time, when such labours, however they may be appreciated, were so much needed. They cannot do all the good they ought; but they will do much. The legislature must do the rest. We respectfully entreat that honourable body to consider the judiciary as an object of much the greatest importance of any confided to their care. We believe it is in their power to lay the foundation of a system of jurisprudence, which in a few years may even equal that of Great-Britain. To accomplish this, it is indispensable that the trial of facts and law be separated. The former should be in each county; and the latter in one, or, at most, in two or three stated places. There is, in the nature of things, no more reason why questions of law should be determined in each county, than that the statutes should be framed and enacted in each county. County lines have nothing to do with either; and it is just as proper that the legislature should be ambulatory, as that a court, not of trials, but of law, should be so.

Let the legislature shorten their own sessions, and apply the saving to the support of the judiciary. The people would be *every way* gainers. In England the judiciary costs the nation a large sum; but not half so much as it is worth; the legislature...nothing. In this state the legislature costs the state a large sum, the judiciary...a mere trifle. It is time to abandon the expectation of law from a court of pie-poudre. Let not this institution of reporter be suffered to languish and die, for want of encouragement. Let the legislature strengthen the "things that are ready to perish." We may then look forward through the humiliation and gloom of the present time to the period, when our judicature shall lift up its head among the states; and when our judicial decisions shall become the envy of our neighbours, and the admiration of the world.

Since the publication of this volume the publick have sustained a great loss in the death of the venerable Judge Strong. His integrity never was called in question. He was a sound lawyer, and well versed in the most dry and least attractive branch of the profession...the doctrine of pleading.

Errata not noted by the author.

P. 3 l.35 }
160 28 } for "26 February," read 27 February.
483 4 }
33 14, after "county," strike out the six following words.
39 4, for "constitution" read construction.
42 29, for "prima" read primæ."
45 20, the sentence following is unintelligible.
68, margin, expunge the word "taken."
87 l. 21, for "this meeting" read their meeting.
92 20, for "diversion" r. diverting.
101, margin at bottom and index "*deceit*" for "an action brought against him for the articles," r. for an action brought against him *for the price of* the articles.
104, margin, for "promissor" r. promissee.
134 l.24, and margin, for "February 27" r. February 26.
135 29, for "June 28, 1801" r. June 23, 1800, *(probably.)*
152, note, last line, for "March 10,1784," read February 6, 1784.
198, margin, "Particular statutes of insolvency" would be more proper than "Statutes of bankruptcy." See V. Acts of Cong. sec. 61 p.81.
201 l. 28, for "account" read decree.
202 28, for "plead" read pleaded.
203 4, for "administrator" r. executor.
204 15, and index "*Statutes of Commonwealth*," for "19th June" read 20th June.
207 25, for "no statute" read a statute.
362 34, for "exigences" r. exigencies.
374 20, for "are" read were.
386 1, for "were" read was.
—— 10, the sentence following is incorrect.
427 34, "prescription" is not the proper word.
430 2, for "were sworn" r. were not sworn.
445 13, for "was sufficient" r. was not sufficient.
454 1, dele semicolon after "contested." There are many errours in the punctuation.
460 6, for "9th section" r. 10th section.
475 32, for "afford" read offend.
495 17, "Judgment arrested," quære de hoc.

INDEX.

"*Courts*," l. 5, for "objection may be taken" r. objection may be made.
"*Declaration*," for "had" r. bad.
"*Evidence*," l. 1, for "indorser" r. indorsee.
"*Joinder in action*," for "180" r. 480.
"*New trial*," l. 4, 5, for "539," r. 530, 541.
"*Review* 4," for "157" read 160.
"*Statutes of the Commonwealth* 1786, *July 7 (Referentes)*," for "443" r. 158.

It is possible, that the copy of the statutes, &c. cited and referred to, which we have used, may be incorrect; for very few of our publications, not even excepting the statutes, have any pretensions to correctness.

ART. 14.

Sketches of the life of the late Rev. Samuel Hopkins, D. D. pastor of the first congregational church in Newport, written by himself; interspersed with marginal notes extracted from his private diary: To which is added, a dialogue, by the same hand, on the nature and extent of true christian submission; also, a serious address to professing christians: closed by Dr. Hart's sermon at his funeral. With an introduction to the whole by the editor. Published by Stephen West, D. D. pastor of the church in Stockbridge. Hartford, Hudson & Goodwin. 1805. *pp.* 240.

NOTHING but the celebrity of Dr. Hopkins's name would have induced us to give that attention to these memoirs, which is commonly expected of reviewers; for we imagine they will be very interesting only to those, who have adopted his system of theology, or who are inclined to lay equal stress with him on the variety and frequency of what are called religious experiences. Indeed, the private thoughts and transient feelings of any man, when minutely registered in a diary, cannot be very intelligible to others, even if they are always understood by the writer; and a reader, unaccustomed to the kind of "exercises," which are here detailed, might imagine, that he had been perusing the journal of a valetudinarian, or listening to the reveries of a love-sick maid. For ourselves we confess, that we think these emotions and drawings-out of the soul have not much to do with the growth of habitual piety, and the fruits of good living. We should not think the more highly of the filial affection of a child for his parents, because he had kept a bulletin of his yearnings and longings for them in their absence, or because in all his letters he had told them how much or how little he loved them. Neither do we think the character of a christian can be so safely estimated from the transcripts of his diary, as from the tenour of his conduct. By these remarks we mean not to depreciate the piety, or undervalue the eminent graces of Dr. Hopkins; for we sincerely believe, that his readers will think more favourably, than he did himself, of the sincerity of his christian faith and conversion. Much less would we interrupt the consolation, which any christian may be disposed to receive from this record of religious doubts and confidences; a record, which will undoubtedly be read by many, whose sentiments and passions, whose hopes and fears are similar to those of Dr. Hopkins.

These sketches are introduced by some proper remarks of the editor, written in a much better style, than any other part of the volume. The facts in Dr. Hopkins's life, as in the life of every studious man, are few. We learn, that he was born Sept. 17, 1721, and died Dec. 20, 1803; that he was admitted into Yale college at the age of sixteen; that he resided much in the family of President Edwards, with whom he studied divinity; that he was settled first at Housatonock, 1743; that he was dismissed in 1769, by the advice of a council, on account of the deficiency in his pecuniary support; that he was afterward invited, after much opposition, to settle at Newport; that his enemies were at length reconciled to his sentiments; that he was ordained there April 11, 1770, and continued with this people, through many difficulties and discouragements, till the day of his death.

These memoirs contain also some domestick anecdotes, and, what will be more interesting to the theological reader, some account of the controversies, in which the Doctor was engaged. As he has given his name to a large and respectable class of christians in the United States, it may not be uninteresting to our readers to have a regular list of the Doctor's publications. The principal benefit, which he is supposed by his friends to have conferred upon the science of theology, may be stated in the words of the fond editor of this little volume.

> To Doctor Hopkins are we indebted for a better underſtanding of the deſign and end of what are generally termed *the means of grace*, and their uſe and appli-

The other works of Dr. Hopkins are, "*A dialogue concerning the slavery of Africans, &c.* 1776, reprinted by the Abolition Society in New-York, 1785, with an appendix by the author.——"*An enquiry concerning the future state of those who die in their sins,*" 8vo. pp. 400. 1783.——*System of Doctrines, &c.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1244. 1793. For this the author unexpectedly received nine hundred dollars.——"*Life of Susannah Anthony; do. of Mrs. Osborn.*" This, we believe is a complete list of the works of Dr. H, published in his lifetime. In the present volume however are contained two tracts, which were probably esteemed worthy of preservation.

The first, entitled "A Dialogue between a Calvinist and a Semicalvinist," proves, to the perfect conviction of the Semicalvinist, that he ought to be willing to be damned. After the doctrine is proved, the advantages of it are summed up by the Calvinist in the following words;

> It is ſuited to enlarge the mind of the chriſtian, and to extend his ideas and thoughts to objects which are great and immenſe, and to wake up the feelings and exerciſes of diſintereſted benevolence, of ſupreme love to God, and regard to the general good, which ſwallows up and forgets his own perſonal intereſt, as nothing, in compariſon with theſe grand objects. This will help him, in the beſt and eaſieſt manner to diſtinguiſh between true religion and falſe: and to obtain, and maintain the evidence in his own mind, that he is a friend to God, and has that benevolence in which holineſs does ſummarily conſiſt. This will prepare him to acquieſce in the eternal deſtruction of thoſe who periſh, and even to rejoice in it, as neceſſary for the glory of God, and the greateſt good of the whole, in the exerciſe of that diſintereſted benevolence, which makes him to be willing to be one of that ſinful, wretched number, were this neceſſary to anſwer theſe ends. *P.* 165.

We have lately read of a curious fact respecting the alligators of the Missisippi, that, in the fall, they swallow pitch pine knots, which remain in their stomachs during their wintry torpor, and probably are chosen on account of their difficult digestion to keep the coats of the stomach from collapsing. If any plain honest christian wishes to exercise his intellectual digestion, and prevent the evil effects of religious security and torpor, we recommend this tract, as containing as knotty a point, as he will probably find among the stores of theological nutriment, which the ingenuity of polemicks has provided.

The second tract is an address to christians upon the signs of the times. Many great and good men have imagined, that they had certainly explained the prophecies of scripture; but we are inclined still to believe, notwithstanding the labours of Dr. Hopkins, that no prophecy of scripture is of any private interpretation.

A discourse by Dr. Hart of Preston, upon the death of the excellent subject of these memoirs, concludes the volume.

We are sorry to say, that the style of Dr. H., in these posthumous works, is too often incorrect, vulgar, and colloquial. Instances of false grammar are not rare, and the coinage of such words as *itinerate*, and *reluctate*, adds nothing to the copiousness or purity of the English language.

ART. 15.

An inaugural dissertation on respiration. Submitted to the publick examination of the Faculty of Physick, under the authority of the trustees of Columbia college, in the state of Newyork, the Rt. Rev. Benjamin Moore, D.D. pres-

ident ; for the degree of Doctor of Physick, on the 12th day of November, 1805. *By Thomas Cock, citizen of the state of New-York.* New-York, printed by T. & J. Swords. 1805.

In an inaugural dissertation we look not for novelty, but we have a right to expect accuracy ; and our opinion of the candidate for collegiate honours is drawn from the principles and sentiments he has adopted. The author of the dissertation before us has evidently given some time to the investigation of the subject which he discusses, and the work contains useful information. We regret, that it is not marked by that accuracy which we are authorized to expect, and which in scientifick works is peculiarly necessary.

The only opinions which are new to us, or to the medical world in general, are those quoted from Mr. Davy. We regret, that we have not had the good fortune to see, and cannot procure the works of Mr. Davy. The opinion, that azote as well as oxygen is absorbed by the pulmonick blood, we surely cannot controvert, and so far as speculation will authorize us we are disposed to subscribe to it. The other opinion, adopted from Davy, cannot be so easily admitted. This is, that air, or the mixture of oxygenous and azotick gasses, not oxygen and azote which form the base of air, is received into the blood.[*] Dr. Cock has quoted no experiments which confirm this opinion, and it is not so plausible, as to command assent unsupported by facts.

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ART 16.

The history of North and South America, from its discovery to the death of General Washington. By Richard Snowden. 2 *vols.* 12*mo.* Philadelphia. Jacob Johnson. 1805.

The author of the above mentioned work observes in his preface that, "In what relates to South America, Dr. Robertson's History has been implicitly followed. His arrangement of the subject, his chronological order, and his very style have been adopted, as the best that can be chosen. To condense his details, to introduce only the most prominent and characteristick events, has been the principal effort, and invariable purpose of the epitomizer : endeavouring, as he progressed, to preserve unbroken the connexion and continuity of events ; and in the whole, to present the reader with a brief, but interesting view, of one of the most important æras in the annals of the world."

The author appears to have been considerably successful in the execution of his proposed plan. The History commences with the discovery of America by Columbus, and relates the formidable difficulties he was obliged to encounter ; the talents and perseverance which he exhibited in combating those difficulties ; and the ungrateful and ungenerous returns which the Spanish nation made to his eminent services. It relates the succeeding discoveries of the new world ; the conquest of the Mexican and Peruvian empires ; and concludes with their entire subjection to the kingdom of Spain.

The second volume begins with relating the conjectures which have been made respecting the peopling of America ; it gives the character of the Indian natives; the state of the British colonies at the termination of the French war; of their altercation with the parent country; it proceeds to give a general sketch of the American war, and the acceptance of the federal constitution; it inserts the farewell address of General Washington, in 1796; and concludes with a description of his person.

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[*] Is this precisely Mr. Davy's opinion ? We understand it so from Dr. Cock's dissertation ; but a reference to Thompson and Bostock has led us to suspect, that Mr. D. believes only, that oxygen and azote are absorbed.

Though this work is a compilation almost entirely in the words of other authors, it contains much useful information for those readers, who have not time to peruse, and cannot easily procure larger accounts.

NOTICES

Of First Lines of the Practice of Physick. By William Cullen, M. D. &c. With practical and explanatory notes, by John Rotheram, M. D. New York: Printed by L. Nicholls, for I. Riley & Co.

WE are rejoiced to see Cullen in a *decent* American dress. Perhaps his general correctness, his incontrovertible practice, and his unparalleled popularity, entitle him to more elegant habiliments than those in which he here appears before us.

It is unnecessary to recommend Cullen's practice of physick to the perusal of physicians. We venture to advise the medical tyro to fix all the practical part of the work firmly in his memory. He will find more advantage from being thoroughly possessed of it, than from running through a hundred of your Darwins and Beddoes's, and others like them. The theory of spasm and collapse, on which Cullen prided himself as the greatest effort of his genius, is fallen with many more theories, and will be followed by others innumerable, till physicians return to Hippocrates, and learn to observe nature, before they reason on her operations. The loss of this theory does not affect the practice of Cullen, which remains a model of excellence.

The edition before us is executed with a good type, on tolerable paper, and is about as free from typographical errours, as American editions of medical works generally are. This work was formerly printed in four volumes, then compressed to two, and now the printer has contrived to compel the whole into a single volume. Hence the type appears very crowded, and the notes are in a character so small, as barely to be legible. It is copied from Rotheram's edition. That by Reid is later, and the notes are more appropriate, though fewer in number. Bosquillon, the French translator of Cullen, has given very copious and valuable notes on this work. These would be a considerable acquisition to English medical literature. They would enhance the value of Dr. Cullen's book, and at the same time possess the advantage of affording a comparative view of French and English medicine.

We have been informed, that it is contemplated to publish this work at Worcester. It is desirable, that it should appear in a style suited to the merits of the work, and to the extensive circulation insured it. The alteration of names of medical simples and compounds, to those of the last Edinburgh pharmacopeia or dispensatory, would increase the value of the book, and save students the labour of referring to old pharmacopeias.

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Fleetwood; or, The New Man of Feeling. By William Godwin. In two volumes. New York: Printed for I. Riley & Co. No. 1, City-Hotel. 1805.

Though the first talents are necessary to the production of a good novel, writings of this species are continually attempted. Why that which is arduous should be ventured on in common, or this track of literature be travelled by crowds, it is difficult perhaps satisfactorily to settle. Were authors restricted by the penury of their calling to a fewness of themes, some cause would appear for their abounding in fable: but topicks in letters being numerous and free, it is hard to account for their fancy for one. Every description of literati, and of no description too, counsellors and clergy, statesmen and ladies, book-sellers and beaux, some without brains and some with, as if smit by enchantment, couch the quill for romance. Bleeding nuns and bloodless corses, vacant castles and peopled caverns, blue flames and white, red flames and green, damsels and knights, duennas and squires, friars and devils, with death's-heads and cross-bones to boot, dance the hay through their works, as though description were crazed.

. . . . The times have been,
That when the brains were out, the man would die,
And there an end; but now, they rise again,
With twenty mortal murders on their crowns,
And push us from our stools. SHAKES.

Among the multitude that affect this department of writing, though less ghostly than his companions, Mr. Godwin is conspicuous. From the refined reveries of Political Justice he turned his attention to the manufacture of stories. How well he succeeded in this fashionable employment Caleb Williams and St. Leon honourably show. The first is a treasure amongst rubbish of its order, and the second, notwithstanding the declaration of Horace,

Quodcunque ostendis mihi sic, incredulus odi,

continues to be a favourite among the majority of readers. But uniform excellence is attainable by none; and, in the performance before us, Mr. Godwin has failed.

Whether the plan of this novel is unfavourable to the genius of its writer, or his former productions have exhausted his vein, or what has contributed to his present miscarriage, it is not expressly our business to say. But, were we called to account for the failures we have detected, we should conceive that Mr. G. had mistaken his province; that the gallantries of Paris, and the exploits of collegians, were unsuitable materials for the author of Falkland, and the tremendous Bethlem Gabor. There are dispositions that seem destined for the heroick alone, that attain to objects elevated with dignity and ease, but discover no gracefulness in stooping to levities. On the mountains of Switzerland, in the community of robbers, with every thing chivalrous, Mr. Godwin appears consummately at home: But, in descending to petty characters and passions, in the management of a *tete-a-tete*, or the manœuvre of a love-matter, he aptly reminds one of Hercules at the distaff. It might be observed of him, as of some former genius, that he could sculpture heroes in marble, but wanted art to carve a head on a nut-shell.

The leading defects in the New Man of Feeling are, violent metaphors, long-winded reflections, and declamatory sentiment. Fleetwood seems possessed of all the foibles of our author, with very few of his excellences. On those occasions, where he used to be instructive or entertaining, he appears here to be irrelative or tedious; where he was formerly elevated or moving, he seems now to be fulsome or puerile. He is frequently so inflated with the effervescence too of his fancy, that he resembles new beer in the labours of refinement. He is continually sighing at the vent with a sad string of ahs....ahs....ahs ! ! ! or popping off in foam with....good God !...just heavens !...and, poor Mary ! You must first be contented to remove the froth from his surface, before you taste of his spirit, or you may be frosted to the eyes in the exuberance of his head. To afford our readers an example of the true sublime and pathetick, we quote the following soliloquy of the *New* Man of Feeling :

> Shall I go to my wife, and confront her with this new evidence of her guilt ? No, I will never speak with her, never see her more. It is a condescension unworthy of an injured husband ever to admit his prostituted consort into his presence! It is as if God should go down and visit Satan in his polluted, sulphureous abodes ! How from my inmost soul I abhor her ! How I will hold her up to the abhorrence of the world !——How I should like to see her torn with red-hot pincers !——To what a height I have loved her ! No, no, no, no, no—never !

If this, gentle readers, be not rhetorick run mad, then have we no skill in criticism. Another objection to Fleetwood is the fashion of its episodes. They seem to break out unnaturally from the body of the work, and wear the appearance of excrescences, rather than branches. We are told a kind of cock-and-bull story about a whimsical little boy, who travelled, nobody knows how far, and, in fact, nobody cares, to introduce himself, forsooth, to Louis the fourteenth. Now this, certainly, is a very singular affair, and for that reason, unquestionably, very pretty. But Mr. Godwin should remember, that he is not composing for the entertainment of nurseries. Our author too, ever willing to take up any threads but those of his story, diverted himself so long in the mill at Lyons, that we began to suspect him to be occupied by the spinning out of other matter than silk. For a dozen pages, or more, we heard nothing but the rattling of *swifts*, children scampering for broken twist, and the trampling of a mill-horse, who gave spring to this hubbub. On the whole ; there is very little in these volumes that reminds one of Mr. Godwin, excepting his visit to Ruffigny and his name on the title.

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Elements of General Knowledge, introductory to useful books in the principal branches of literature and science, designed chiefly for the junior students in the universities, and the higher classes in schools. By Henry Kett, B.D. fellow and tutor of Trinity College, Oxford. Philadelphia, Maxwell, for F. Nichols, Philadelphia, and J. A. Cummings, Boston. 1805. 2 *vols.* 12*mo.* *pp.* 350 *each.*

This is among the few books which merits the currency which it has found. Mr. Kett indeed is not a man of superlative talents, but it does not require very transcendant powers to accomplish all that he proposes. His design is to give a survey of the general objects of knowledge, which he reduces under the following classes : Religion, language, history, philosophy, polite literature and the fine arts, and the sources of national prosperity. We were at first apprehensive that we were sitting down to the examination of another attempt " to show a royal path to geometry ;" and we give Mr. Kett his highest praise, when we say our suspicions were unjust. He has not debased the dignity of literature, by making superficial knowledge of it more easy ; he only gives his youthful reader a view of the objects and present state of science, and admits him to see at a distance its " goodly prospects," and hear its " melodious sounds," without concealing or diminishing the difficulties, which must be overpassed before he can completely enjoy them.

The American edition is remarkably neat, and we examined it with unmingled pleasure, till we met the following passage, which is inserted in a note on the chapter on the Greek language.

> The English reader must make a due allowance for the exaggerated praise of a credulous classical pedant, who seems to believe all the idle stories which the Grecian writers relate of their countrymen. If the celebrated Romances of Mrs. Radcliffe had been written by a Republican of Athens, they would probably have held the first rank in ancient literature.
>
> That sublime moralist, and profound scholar, Mr. Godwin, is equally liberal of his praise of the language, literature, and virtues of the Romans. See Godwin's Inquirer. Editor.

We want words to express our indignation at the unexampled impertinence of this intrusion on Mr. Kett. Its absurdity and imbecility does not at all apologize for its insolence ; and if the works which are reprinted in this country are to be thus polluted, our hopes from the growing utility of our press must be at once relinquished.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE U. STATES, FOR MARCH, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

☞ *We cannot too often repeat solicitations to authors, printers, and booksellers, in the different parts of the United States, to send us by the earliest opportunities (post paid) notices of all books which they have lately published, or which they intend to publish. The list of New Publications, &c. contained in the Anthology is the only list within our knowledge published in the United States, and consequently the only one that can be useful to the publick for purposes of general reference. If authors and publishers will consent to communicate, not only notices, but a copy of all their publications, such use might be made of them as would promote, what all unite in ardently wishing, the general interest of American literature, and the more extensive circulation of books.*

NEW WORKS.

History of the Riſe, Progreſs, and Termination of the American Revolution; interſperſed with biographical, political, and moral Obſervations. In three volumes. By Mrs. Mercy Warren, of Plymouth, (Maſſ.) Vols. I. and II. 8vo. 1ſt vol. pp. 446, 2d vol. 412. Boſton : Printed by Manning & Loring, for E. Larkin. 1805.

The firſt Supplement to the Philadelphia Medical and Phyſical Journal, collected and arranged by B. Smith Barton, Profeſſor of Materia Medica, Natural Hiſtory, and Botany, in the Univerſity of Pennſylvania. 8vo. Philadelphia. 1806.

A Syſtem of Geometry and Trigonometry; together with a treatiſe on Surveying; teaching various ways of taking the ſurvey of a field, alſo to protract the ſame, and find the area. Likewiſe rectangular ſurveying; or an accurate method of calculating the area of any field arithmetically, without the neceſſity of plotting it. To the whole are added ſeveral mathematical Tables, neceſſary for ſolving queſtions in trigonometry and ſurveying; with a particular explanation of thoſe tables, and the manner of uſing them. Compiled from various authors, by Abel Flint, A. M. Hartford. Lincoln & Gleaſon.

No 85 of A new and complete Encyclopædia, or univerſal dictionary of arts and ſciences. 4to. New York.

The American Gardener's Calender; adapted to the climates and ſeaſons of the United States, containing a complete account of all the work neceſſary to be done in the kitchen garden, fruit garden, orchard, vineyard, nurſery, pleaſure-ground, flower garden, green-houſe, hot-houſe, and forcing frames, for every month in the year. To which are annexed, extenſive catalogues of the different kinds of plants, which may be cultivated either for uſe or ornament in the ſeveral departments, or in rural economy; divided into eighteen alphabetical claſſes, according to their habits, duration, and modes of culture; with explanatory introductions, marginal marks, and their true Linnæan or botanical, as well as Engliſh names; together with a copious index to the body of the work. By Bernard M'Mahon, nurſery, ſeedſman, and floriſt, Philadelphia. Price, full bound, 3,50. Philadelphia. 1806.

A Compendious Dictionary of the Engliſh language, in which five thouſand words are added to the number found in the beſt Engliſh compends; the orthography is in ſome inſtances corrected, the pronunciation marked by an accent, or other ſuitable direction; and the definitions of many words amended and improved. To which are added, for the benefit of the merchant, the ſtudent and the traveller,

I. Tables of the moneys of moſt of the commercial nations in the world, with the value expreſſed in ſterling and cents. II. Tables of weights and meaſures ancient and modern, with the proportion between the ſeveral weights uſed in the principal cities of Europe. III. The diviſions of time among the Jews, Greeks, and Romans, with a table exhibiting the Roman manner of dating. IV. An official liſt of the poſt-offices in the United States, with the ſtates and counties in which they are reſpectively ſituated, and the diſtance of each from the ſeat of government. V. The number of inhabitants in the U. States, with the amount of exports. VI. New and intereſting chronological tables of remarkable events and diſcoveries.

By Noah Webſter, Eſq. From Sidney Preſs, for Hudſon & Goodwin, Hartford, and Increaſe Cooke & Co. New-Haven. 12mo. pp. 408. 1806.

A Collection of the Eſſays on the Subject of Epiſcopacy, which originally appeared in the Albany Centinel, and which are aſcribed principally to Rev. Dr. Linn, Rev. Mr. Beaſley, and Thos. Y. How, Eſq. With additional notes and remarks. New York. T. & J. Swords. 1 dol. 1806.

A Paſtoral Letter from the Right Rev. Thomas John Claggett, D. D. biſhop of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal Church in Maryland, to the clergy and congregation of the ſaid church. New York. T. & J. Swords. 1806.

An abridgment of Henry on Prayer, conſiſting of a judicious collection of ſcriptures, proper to the ſeveral parts of the duty, with an eſſay on the nature and duty of prayer; to which are annexed ſome forms of prayer. By a committee of the North Conſociation of Hartford County. Hartford, Lincoln & Gleaſon. 50 cents.

Familiar Letters, to the Rev. John Sherman, once paſtor of the church in Mansfield, in particular reference to his late anti-trinitarian Treatiſe. By Daniel Dow, paſtor of a church in Thompſon, Connecticut. Hartford. Lincoln and Gleaſon. 1806. 25 cents.

Illuſtrations and Reflections on the ſtory of Saul's conſulting the witch of Endor. A diſcourſe, delivered at Weſt-Springfield. By Joſeph Lathrop, D. D. paſtor of the firſt church in ſaid town. 8vo. pp. 20. Springfield, (Maſſ.) H. Brewer. 1806.

A new-year's ſermon, preached at Lee, January 1, 1804. By Rev. Alvan Hyde, paſtor of the church in Lee.

A diſcourſe before the Society for propagating the Goſpel among the Indians and others in North America, delivered Nov. 7, 1805. By Joſeph Eckley, D. D. Miniſter of the Old South Church in Boſton. E. Lincoln.

A ſermon, delivered at Lenox, (Maſſ.) February 20th, 1806, being the day of the execution of Ephraim Wheeler, purſiant to his tenants. By Samuel Shepard, A.M. paſtor of the church in Lenox. Price 12½ cents. Stockbridge. Herman Willard.

A diſcourſe, delivered at Hillſborough, Newhampſhire, by Rev. Stephen Chapin; being his firſt after ordination. 8vo. Amherſt. Joſeph Cuſhing.

A diſcourſe delivered at Brookline, 24th Nov. 1805, the day which completed a century from the incorporation of the town. By John Pierce, A. M. the fifth miniſter of Brookline. Cambridge. W. Hilliard.

Foſcari; or the Venetian exile, a tragedy, in five acts. By John B. White, Eſq. 8vo. Price 50 cents. Charleſton, (S. C.) 1806.

The Piſcataqua Evangelical Magazine, No. 1 of the 2d Vol. 8vo. pp. 48. 12 cents. Amherſt. J. Cuſhing.

New Collection of Spiritual Songs, moſtly original. By Rev. Coleman Pendleton. Raleigh, (N. C.) J. Gales.

The complete Valentine Writer, for both ſexes. Baltimore. Fryer and Clark. 1806.

The Laws paſſed at the laſt ſeſſion of the general aſſembly of Virginia. Richmond. Samuel Pleaſants, jun. 1806.

Who ſhall be governour, Strong or Sullivan? or, the ſham-patriot unmaſked; being an expoſition of the fatally ſucceſsful arts of demagogues to exalt themſelves, by flattering and ſwindling the people; in a variety of pertinent facts, drawn from ſacred and profane hiſtory. 8vo. pp. 50. Boſton. 1806.

The Boſton ſelf-ſtyled Gentlemen Reviewers reviewed. By the author of the Science of Sanctity; and that truly original production analytically delineated. By a Berean. 8vo. Brattleborough, (Ver.) William Feſſenden.

An Exhibition of Facts, ſupported by documents, for the information of the militia officers of the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts; containing a ſtatement of the cauſes which led to the arreſt of Captain Joſeph Loring, jun. 8vo. pp. 96. 37½ cents. Boſton, David Carliſle.

NEW EDITIONS.

Sermons of John Baptiſt Maſſillon and Lewis Bourdaloue, two celebrated French preachers. Alſo, a ſpiritual paraphraſe of ſome of the pſalms, in the form of devout meditations and prayers, by J. B. Maſſillon. Tranſlated by Rev. Abel Flint, paſtor of the church in Hartford. 12mo. pp. 310. 1 dol. Hartford, Lincoln & Gleaſon.

The Lay of the Laſt Minſtrel, a poem, by Walter Scott, with notes, &c. 1 vol. 12mo. extra boards, pp. 250. fine hot-preſſed paper. 1 dol. New York, Iſaac Riley & Co. 1806.

The Free-Maſon's Monitor, or illuſtrations of maſonry, in two parts. By Thomas Smith Webb, paſt maſter of Temple Lodge, Albany, &c. 12mo. Boſton, printed for H. Cuſhing, Providence, &c.

War in Diſguiſe, or the frauds of the neutral flags. 8vo. Charleſton, (S. C.) E. Morford. 1806.

An Anſwer to War in Diſguiſe, by an American ſtateſman. 8vo. Charleſton. Morford. 1806.

War in Diſguiſe, &c. 2d edition. In 12mo. boards. pp. 228. fine paper. 75 cents. New York. Riley & Co. 1806.

The Infirmities and Comforts of Old Age. A ſermon to aged people. By Joſeph Lathrop, D. D. paſtor of the firſt church in Weſt-Springfield. 2d edition. Springfield, (Maſs.) H. Brewer.

The Seraphical Young Shepherd, being a very remarkable account of a young ſhepherd in France, who attained to an uncommon and evangelical knowledge of the true God and Jeſus Chriſt; tranſlated from the French, with notes by C Catey, jun. 18mo. 62 cents. Boſton, J. Weſt.

IN THE PRESS.

Letters to a Young Lady on a Courſe of Engliſh Poetry. By John Aikin, M. D. 12mo. fine woven paper. Boſton. Munroe and Francis.

The firſt number of Madoc, a poem, by Robert Southey. Fine woven paper, large 8vo. Boſton. Munroe & Francis.

Oſſian's Poems. 2 vols. with plates. New York.

Letters to Rev. Mr. Auſtin on Infant Baptiſm. By Daniel Merrill, A. M. paſtor of the church of Chriſt in Sedgwick. 12mo. Boſton. Manning & Loring.

The ſixth and laſt volume of Orton's Expoſition of the Old Teſtament. Charleſtown. S. Etheridge

The ſecond edition of the Firſt Number of the Chriſtian Monitor, a religious periodical publication, by "a ſociety for promoting chriſtian knowledge, piety, and charity." 12mo. pp. 192.—Boſton, Munroe & Francis.

Apology for Infant Baptiſm and the uſual modes of baptizing. By John Reed, D. D. paſtor of a church and congregation in Bridgewater. In which work the objections and reaſonings of Rev. Daniel Merrill, and the principal

Baptiſt writers are conſidered and anſwered. 12mo. pp. 270. Boſton.

The New Hampſhire Latin Grammar: comprehending all the neceſſary rules in orthography, ſyntax, and proſody; with explanatory and critical notes. By John Smith, A.M. profeſſor of the learned languages at Dartmouth College. Second edition, with large additions. 12mo. Boſton. John Weſt.

Paley's Moral Philoſophy. 8vo. J. Weſt, Boſton.

The fulfilling of the Scriptures delineated. By Rev. Robert Fleming. Charleſtown. S. Etheridge.

The Spirit of the Publick Journals, or the beauties of the American newſpapers. The firſt No. to appear in April. Baltimore. S. Bourne.

The third volume of Scott's Commentary. Philadelphia. W. W. Woodward.

PROPOSED TO BE PUBLISHED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

A cheap edition, highly improved and much enlarged, of the original work, entitled, Nature Diſplayed in her Mode of teaching Language to Man; or a new and infallible method of acquiring a language in the ſhorteſt time poſſible, deduced from the analyſis of the human mind, and conſequently ſuited to every capacity. Adapted to the French. By N. G. Dufief, of Philadelphia. 2 vols. large 8vo. Fine paper. Price to ſubſcribers 5 dols. in boards. Philadelphia. John Watts. Subſcriptions received in Boſton by J. Gourgas.

The Family Expoſitor abridged, according to the plan of its author, the Rev. Philip Doddridge. In two vols. 8vo. By S. Palmer. To this edition will be prefixed a portrait of Dr. Doddridge, and an account of his life and writings. Hartford. Lincoln & Gleaſon.

The Doctrine of the Law and Grace unfolded. By John Bunyan, author of the Pilgrim's Progreſs. To the above will be added, Grace abounding to the Chief of Sinners, being a faithful account of the life and death of Mr. John Bunyan. In one vol. 12mo. pp. 300. Price to ſubſcribers 87½ cents bound. Boſton. Manning & Loring.

An entire new work, entitled, The Hiſtory of Wyoming, or the county of Luzerne, in Pennſylvania, from the firſt ſettlement in 1768 to 1806. By Abraham Bradley, Eſq.

Victor, or The Independents of Bohemia, a grand romantick play, as performed with great applauſe at Providence; and, Rudolph, or The Robbers of Calabria, a grand romantick melo-drama, with choruſſes, as performed laſt winter at New York with unbounded applauſe. Written by John Turnbull, late of New York, now of Charleſton theatre. Fine paper. 1 dol. to ſubſcribers; 1,37 to nonſubſcribers. Charleſton, S. C. Wm. Young.

INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Grahame, author of The Sabbath, a poem, has juſt finiſhed a new volume of Poems, which will ſpeedily be publiſhed.

A Second Collection of Letters to a Young Clergyman, by the Rev. Job Orton, is nearly ready for publication.

A Life of Romney the painter, from the pen of Hayley, will ſhortly appear, and will be accompanied with a variety of engravings.

The ſixth volume of the General Biographical Dictionary, by Dr. Aikin, Mr. Morgan &c. which had met with a temporary delay, is gone to the preſs. It is conducted by the ſame writers with thoſe of the preceding volumes; but the Spaniſh and Portugueſe literary biography will be given more at large by a gentleman peculiarly acquainted with that department.

A proſpectus of two periodical works has been iſſued at New York, the firſt entitled, *The Continent of Europe, or the Paris Correſpondent*; and the ſecond, *L'Amerique du Nord, ou Le Correſpondent des Etats Unis.* In the firſt part of the propoſed work will be comprehended a brief analytical account of all the productions, in every branch of literature, ſcience, and the arts, which may appear on the continent of Europe, exhibiting ſucceſſively to view the progreſs and ſtate of knowledge, in France, Germany, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Spain, Switzerland, and Italy.—To each number will be ſubjoined, important ſtate papers, Paris price-currents of merchandize, and other uſeful commercial intelligence.—The various articles will be arranged under the general heads of phyſical and mathematical ſciences;—economy and uſeful arts;—morals and politicks;—hiſtory and biography;—fine arts;—general hiſtory of literature.—

Such an account will be given of every article as will render it eaſily underſtood, and, in ſuch a manner as to bring into a ſmall compaſs the moſt valuable ideas and intereſting facts, in every department of ſcience and the belles-lettres, and to make known to the people of the United States the productions of men of genius and talents in Europe. As a ſuitable *introduction* to this work, the Editor propoſes to give a *Catalogue raiſonné*, of *Greek*, *Latin*, *Engliſh*, *French*, *Spaniſh*, and *Italian books*, ſelected from the beſt bibliographical and periodical works that have appeared in France, and which will preſent a brief retroſpect of the literature and ſcience of paſt years. A good catalogue of books in foreign languages is much wanted by men of letters in America, many of whom are unable to make a proper ſelection from a want of a ſuitable means to guide their choice. The Editor has ſpared no pains in making a collection, with a particular view to the United States; and he indulges the hope, that the profeſſors of univerſities, colleges, and academies, the members of learned ſocieties, and the lovers of literature and the arts, in general, will find in the numbers of *the Continent of Europe, or the Paris Correſpondent*, much uſeful bibliographical intelligence, and valuable information in all the various branches of human knowledge, and that they will honour the preſent undertaking with their patronage and ſupport. The firſt work will be printed in Engliſh, and publiſhed every month, by *Iſaac Riley & Co.* of New York. Each number will contain at leaſt 48 pages 8vo. price 50 cents. The materials neceſſary to commence and carry on the work are already provided, and will in future be regularly furniſhed by *H. Caritat* from Paris. The publication will commence as ſoon as a ſufficient number of ſubſcribers are obtained to defray the expenſes of the undertaking.——The ſecond work, entitled *L'Amerique du Nord, ou Le Correſpondent des Etats Unis*, is deſigned to exhibit to the inhabitants of Europe an account of all the publications, productions, diſcoveries, and improvements, in the United States. It will contain the various articles in all the branches of literature and ſcience, arranged under proper heads, with an analytical account of the ſame, in the manner propoſed as to the firſt part. The prices of goods, publick ſtocks, and other uſeful commercial information will be added. As this work will be publiſhed in the French language, by *H. Caritat*, at Paris, American authors and publiſhers will have an opportunity of having their productions made known throughout Europe: for which purpoſe it will be neceſſary to make early communications of them to *Iſaac Riley & Co.* at NewYork, by whom arrangements will be made relative to both works, for the convenience of ſubſcribers in every part of the United States. The ſecond work will be compriſed in numbers of about 82 pages octavo, and publiſhed monthly at Paris, at 25 cents each. ☞ Subſcriptions received at the Anthology Office.

The long expected Tour of Colonel Thornton through various parts of France, a ſplendid work, which has been nearly three years in hand, is now nearly ready for publication. It will be compriſed in two volumes imperial quarto, illuſtrated by about eighty beautiful engravings in colours, by Mr. Scott and other artiſts, from original drawings, deſcriptive of the country, cuſtoms, and manners of the people, taken by the ingenious Mr. Bryant, who accompanied the Colonel expreſsly for that purpoſe. This tour was performed during the ceſſation of hoſtilities, toward the concluſion of the year 1802, and the route being entirely different from that uſually taken by Engliſh travellers, no ſmall degree of information and intereſt is expected to reſult from the peruſal of the work. To the ſportſman in particular it cannot fail to prove highly gratifying, as we have no account whatever of the ſtate of ſporting in that country. Another edition of the work will appear at the ſame time in royal quarto, with the plates uncoloured.

Mrs. Opie's Simple Tales are in a ſtate of forwardneſs.

Letters to a Young Lady, from the pen of Mrs. Weſt, have been publiſhed in England.

In the Electoral Library at Munich have been diſcovered the Four Goſpels, and a Liturgy of the eleventh century, in ſmall folio, on fine white parchment, written in a beautiful diſtinct character, and in the higheſt ſtate of preſervation. They are very ſplendidly bound, and ornamented with precious ſtones and pearls: the claſps are of gold, and they are lettered on the back with ivory.

A Secret Hiſtory of the Court of St. Cloud, in a Series of Letters from a Gentleman at Paris to a Nobleman in London, will appear immediately.

The univerſal and heartfelt tribute of reſpect which has been paid to the memory of the late lamented Lord Nelſon, has communicated its influence to the painters and poets; and many, very many, have, ever ſince we had the advice of his death, been exerting all their powers to perpetuate his praiſe and immortalize his fame. They began with mixing marks of their regret with the illuminations for his brilliant victory, in which the blazing windows bore teſtimony to the feelings of the inhabitants,

"In words that blaze, and thoughts that burn."

It muſt be acknowledged, however, that ſome of the inſcriptions were more ſimilar to readings in Weſtminſter-Abbey, than to the tranſparencies of a rejoicing-night.

Jean, the artiſt, of Newman ſtreet; exhibited a tranſparency of Britannia, with the uſual inſignia of Fame, the victories of the gallant Admiral, and on the weſt ſide an urn, with the followiug inſcription:

"Britannia, victor, ever muſt deplore
Her darling Hero, Nelson, now no more!"

The inſcription at the houſe of Mr. Abraham Goldſmid was peculiarly appropriate and intelligent. Between two cordons of lamps, in tranſparent letters,

"I rejoice for my country, but mourn for my friend."

But ſetting aſide theſe little effuſions of the hour, we find that ſeveral great works are in hand on the occaſion.

Meſſrs. Boydells intend having a very capital picture engraved in the firſt ſtyle in commemoration of the event, but we believe have not yet entirely arranged the plan, though it will be laid before the publick in a few days.

Mr. Weſt and Mr. Heath have announced and advertiſed their plan.

Mr. Copley has ſtated that he intends painting a large picture on the ſame ſubject.

We have, beſide theſe, many advertiſements from other artiſts who intend publiſhing memorials on a ſmaller ſcale.

Mr. Orme has advertiſed an engraving from a picture to be painted by Mr. Craig; and Mr. Ackermann, we have been told, will almoſt immediately publiſh a highly-finiſhed graphick record of the Admiral's victories, &c., ſurmounted with a naval trophy in honour of his memory.

The Honourable Mrs. Damer has preſented to the Corporation of the City of London a marble Buſt of Lord Nelſon, which is to be placed on an elegant marble pedeſtal, and depoſited in the Council-Chamber at Guildhall

In about a month's time Meſſrs. Boydells will publiſh a portrait of Lord Nelſon, which is now engraving by Earlom, from a picture painted by Sir William Beechey, and preſented to the Corporation of the City of London by the late Alderman Boydell.

We ſaw this picture ſoon after it was finiſhed, and thought it one of the fineſt that Sir William Beechey ever painted.— It is a moſt ſpirited and animated portrait, marked with *mind* and appropriate character, but not painted to be viewed upwards of twenty feet above the eye, and at that height we were very much mortified to ſee it exhibited in the Council-Chamber at Guildhall, where it is placed immediately over the ſeat of the Lord Mayor. But juſtice to the memory of our lamented Hero demands its removal to a ſituation nearer the eye; for here the whole portrait appears of one tone of colour, and the honourable ſcar in the Admiral's forehead, which was a remarkable mark, is entirely loſt. The portrait of Lord Rodney, which is ſo painted that it would admit of being placed at a greater height, is about twelve feet from the eye. The ſituation of the two portraits might be changed, and Lord Nelſon put in the place now appropriated to Lord Rodney, and *vice verſa.—Lond. Month. Retroſpect.*

Advices recently received from Naples contain further details relative to the unrolling of the manuſcripts diſcovered at Herculaneum. Eleven perſons are at preſent employed in unrolling and copying. The manuſcripts hitherto inſpected amount to about 140, eight of which have already been interpreted and tranſmitted to the miniſter Seratti, that they may be examined by the Academy, and ordered to be printed. Theſe manuſcripts are, ſix of Epicurus, entitled, Περὶ τῆς Φυσεως, On Nature. Another is by Philodemus; its title is, περὶ τῆς Οργης, On Anger. The eighth wants both the title and name of the author. It treats of nature and the worſhip of the gods. The next four are almoſt entirely explained; but they have not yet been tranſmitted, becauſe Mr. Hayter and the Abbé Foti, of the order of St. Baſil, jointly are to ſuperintend their publication

The Abbé Foti has firſt to collate the copies with the originals, to ſupply what is neceſſary, and to tranſlate. Mr. Hayter collates after him, alters what he thinks proper in the ſupplements and tranſlations, and delivers the copy to M. Foti, to be again tranſcribed. The delay occaſioned by Mr. Hayter in his labours, is the reaſon why theſe manuſcripts have not yet been ſent either to the Academy or the Miniſter. Their titles are as follow: one on logick, entitled On the Strength of Arguments drawn from Analogy—Περὶ Κακιῶν καὶ τῶν αντιχειμενων Ἀρετῶν, Treatiſe on Vices and the contrary Virtues—[illegible], On Death. Theſe three works are by Philodemus. The author of the fourth is Polyſtratus: Περὶ αλογου κατα [illegible] α δ [illegible] προς τας αλογους κατα [illegible] των εν τοις [illegible], On unreaſonable Contempt; that is, of thoſe who deſpiſe unjuſtly what others commend.—This manuſcript is the leaſt damaged, and many paſſages of it are abſolutely untouched. The other *papyri* are in a great part by Philodemus; they treat of rhetorick, of poetry, and of morality. The publication of theſe manuſcripts cannot take place with all the expedition that could be wiſhed, as the originals are to be engraved before they are preſented to the publick. This proceſs requires much time and money, and the want of the latter will conſiderably retard the publication. M. Roſini, biſhop of Puzzuoli, to whom the publick is indebted for the fragment of Philodemus on Muſick, is the perſon appointed by the Court of Naples to ſuperintend the engraving and the publication of theſe manuſcripts.

A diſtinguiſhed man of ſcience at Naples has publiſhed an account of a viſit he paid to Pompeii ſince the late reſearches ordered by the Queen of Naples.—The principal particulars of his ſtatement are as follow:—"In a ſearch begun about ſeven years ago was diſcovered the capital of a pilaſter, which was ſuſpected to be the lateral front of a grand portico. Laſt winter the works were reſumed at that place, and the correſponding pilaſter was found. The braſs hinges of the door have been removed to the Muſeum of Portici. The habitation into which it leads is large and commodious, and richly ornamented with paintings and moſaic-work. The building is formed of ſquare ſtones, ſo nicely fitted and cemented, that the whole would be taken for a ſingle maſs.—The paſſage which ſerves for entrance is twelve palms long, and ten wide. It leads to a court, the walls of which are covered with ſtucco of various colours.—The capitals and cornices are in good preſervation; and I there obſerved a roſe, which is a maſter-piece both of deſign and execution. All the apartments are decorated with beautiful paintings on a red, blue, and yellow ground. You there ſee likewiſe detached columns, with flowers, candelabras, and ornaments, in the beſt ſtyle. To the left are two apartments, which were probably thoſe of the maſter and miſtreſs. The painter gave a free ſcope to his imagination in all the pictures, which I beheld with inexpreſſible delight. Nothing can be more pleaſing, among others, than a dance of perſons in maſks; and nothing more graceful than a little bird pecking at a baſket of figs. In the centre of the court is a ciſtern, the *impluvium* of the Romans. On a marble pedeſtal is a young Hercules ſeated on a hind of bronze. Theſe two pieces, one of which weighs about twenty pounds, and the other forty, are of the moſt finiſhed workmanſhip. The water fell from the mouth of the hind into a beautiful couch of Grecian marble. Behind the pedeſtal was a table, the yellow feet of which repreſent the claws of an eagle.—Theſe perfect works have likewiſe been conveyed to the Muſeum. A lateral corridor on the right leads to a ſecond court, which was ſurrounded by piazzas, as is proved by the octagonal columns covered with ſtucco. In one of the apartments are obſerved two Bacchantes holding *thyrſi*.—Above the window, to the right, is a painting of Europa, of great beauty; ſhe is quite naked, and is ſeated on the bull, which is plunging into the ſea. Beneath is a young man carrying a baſket of fruits; he is raiſing himſelf on tiptoe; and this attitude required of the artiſt a ſtrongly marked expreſſion of the muſcular ſyſtem. On the oppoſite ſide a beautiful female dancer excites admiration; ſhe is holding and ſtriking two cymbals; her veil, which floats behind her, produces a very fine effect. On proceeding into the adjoining hall, the firſt thing that ſtruck me was a magnificent pavement of the moſt precious African marbles. The ceiling repreſents Venus between Mars and Cupid. In this hall were found a ſmall idol of bronze, a gold vaſe weighing three ounces, a gold coin, and twelve others of copper, with the effigy of Veſpaſian. In the hall to the left fragments of pictures, painted on wood, half carbonized, were diſtinguiſhable: they were incloſed in a kind of niches: this was the bed chamber; eight little columns by which it was ſupported may ſtill be ſeen: they are of bronze, and to their ſummits ſtill adhere ſome pieces of gilded wood, which probably formed a canopy. On the lateral wall were painted two prieſts with long beards, and clothed in robes of blue and green: they have been removed to the Muſeum. The kitchen contained a great quantity of utenſils, moſtly of iron inlaid with ſilver in inconceivable perfection.—But what moſt ſtruck me were five candelabras painted in freſco on a ground of an extremely brilliant yellow: I ſcarcely knew how to leave the room which contained this maſter-piece of taſte and elegance: they are ſupported by ſmall figures, whoſe attitude, dreſs, and drapery, are ſo exquiſitely graceful, that they might ſerve as models to all the belles in the world. In this houſe, as in moſt others of the ancients, you find no window opening towards the ſtreet. I was ſtruck with the fragments of a chariot which is ſtill remaining in the coach-houſe: you may perfectly diſtinguiſh the wheels and the braſs ornaments of the chariot itſelf.—Cloſe to the habitation is ſeen a door that conducts to another, and which, to judge by its exterior, will not furniſh fewer beauties whenever it ſhall be permitted to be opened."

Miſs Edgeworth will publiſh early in January a new work, in two volumes, entitled Leonora.—*Lon. Month. Mag.*

DEATHS IN BOSTON,

From Friday, Feb. 20, to Thurſday, March 20, as reported to the Board of Health by the Sextons.

	Male.	Fem.	Ch.
Accident	1		
Cancer		1	
Childbed		2	
Colic, bilious	1		
Conſumption		9	
Dropſy	1	1	
Drowned	1		
Fever, bilious	1	2	
——, nervous	3	3	
Fits		1	
Old age	1	1	
Unknown	4	1	13
	13	21	13

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,

From Feb. 20th to March 20th.

THE weather of the paſt month has been, for the moſt part, cold and unpleaſant. This is to be attributed to the prevalence of rough north-eaſterly winds, which have exiſted through the month, almoſt without intermiſſion.

> "No gently-breathing breeze prepares the spring;"

but nature has again inveſted herſelf with her wintry robe.

To the north-eaſterly winds may be aſcribed innumerable catarrhs, ſome of which have been ſo ſevere as to demand medical aid. Pneumonic inflammation has been common, but not fatal. Beſides theſe inflammatory diſeaſes, there have been ſome caſes of cynanche tonſillaris, and we are informed that the cynanche maligna exiſts. Typhus mitior, which was prevalent in the autumn and did not entirely diſappear during the winter, ſeems again to have become frequent.

Some time ſince, we remarked "that vaccination was ſcarcely heard of." It is with ſorrow that we repeat this remark.—People think that phyſicians are eager to propagate this diſeaſe for their own advantage. This is a very miſtaken notion; for the faculty rather receive injury, than profeſſional emolument, from the vaccinating practice. A ſpirit of philanthropy has excited great exertions for the diffuſion and preſervation of this practice; yet the time may come, when that ſpirit will be extinguiſhed by the prejudices of ſome, and the cold indifference of others.

Editors' Notes.

THE continuation of the review of the Transactions of the Academy unfortunately was not prepared in season for the present number.

We should be proud to number the Authors of the Essay on Method and the Character of Dr. Howard among the regular contributors to the Anthology. It makes us nobis carior to be allowed to unite with ours the productions of minds, stored as theirs are with the riches of ripened thought, and ample and digested knowledge.

The verses of L. are classical and ingenious.

We should be pleased to be frequently indebted to the writer of the beautiful lines on Shipwreck.

We do not precisely understand A. B.'s design. If he means to quarrel with the Reviewer of the sermon in question, he takes an odd method, by coinciding with him in opinion;...if with the Writer, he cannot expect that we should make our work the theatre of the dispute.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

APRIL, 1806.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM EUROPE. No. 4.

Island of Nisida...lake of Agnano...grotto del Cane...baths of St. Germain.

The lake of Agnano is one of the objects which is pointed out to the curiosity of a stranger. It is about four miles from Naples. After passing the grotto, there is a house on the road side, where a guide is taken to conduct him to the lake, and the grotto del Cane. The man was instantly ready, and was bringing as usual a torch and a dog. The poor animal was meagre and feeble, and was unwillingly dragged along. I had no wish to see him tortured, and insisted upon his being released, and his actions seemed to me more expressive than words could have been. When the man let go the rope which was round his neck he did not immediately run away, but looked up at us and seemed to wonder how he had escaped his accustomed torture; he continued thus till we drove off, and then turned slowly round and returned to the house.

The guide got up behind the carriage and we soon turned off to the right. After passing for some time beautiful fields highly cultivated, we descended a hill and came in sight of the lake, surrounded by hills. It is a beautiful piece of water, about half a mile in circumference. There were various species of wild fowl sporting on its surface. They appeared to be conscious of the security they enjoyed, for they suffered me to come close to them without discomposing themselves. The surface of the lake is sometimes almost covered with them. It forms a part of the territory devoted to the hunting pleasures of the king, and no vulgar sportsman ever dares disturb the tranquillity of the place. As the king seldom hunts here, the birds live unmolested, and multiply continually. Nothing could be more picturesque than this lake surrounded by hills; its smooth surface was unruffled by the slightest breeze, the wild ducks were swimming and diving in perfect security; there were no houses to be seen, a few goats were reposing under the shade of some trees on one side, and except these there was nothing to interrupt this delicious solitude, which recalled to my mind the fabled tranquillity of the golden age.

On the side of one of these hills is situated the grotto del Cane. This is only a hole in the side of the hill, closed with a gate. It is not capable of containing more than half a dozen people. The bottom is muddy, covered with a vapour, destructive to animal life. The guide prepares himself with two lighted torches to shew the effect; the moment that one of them is brought within a few inches of the bottom it is instantly extinguished. The vapour does not rise above a foot from the surface, and is confined to a part of the cave. The experiment of the torch is sufficient to exemplify the effects, but a number of dogs are kept to gratify the miserable curiosity of those who choose to see their sufferings. The animal, after being held a minute in the cave, is thrown into strong convulsions, and would soon expire if suffered to remain; but as his torture must be repeated to gratify the next traveller who comes, he is taken out before he is quite dead and thrown into the lake, where he soon recovers. From this effect upon dogs, the hole, for it is nothing else, receives its name.

A little distant from the grotto del Cane, and on the border of the lake, are the sweating baths of St. Germain. These are some low buildings constructed over crevices in the earth, through which hot sulphureous vapours arise, which are considered of great service in many disorders. The sick from some of the hospitals at Naples are occasionally brought here, and placed for some hours in these rooms. The walls and floors are covered with sulphur, nitre, deposited by the vapour in the most beautiful forms. The vapour is continually flying out in different places, and some of the rooms are so hot as to occasion immediate perspiration.

This circular valley, in the centre of which is situated the lake of Agnano, is without doubt the crater of an extinguished volcano. The appearance of the sides evidently denotes this, and these vapours are remnants of its ancient volcanick state. The æra must be very remote when this crater was in a burning state, as no record of it is found in history, and the sides of it are now covered with a fertile soil; and to effect this process, nature requires the aid of many centuries.

On my return from visiting the lake, as it was a fine afternoon, I did not return immediately to the city, but rode down to the shore, which is about two miles from the grotto. On the left was the promontory of Posilipo, and to the right the beach extends towards Pozzuoli. In front, and but a short distance from the shore, is the island of Nisida; this is a mere rock, of small circumference, rising almost perpendicularly out of the water; it contains a small fort. It is a place where vessels perform quarantine and unlade their cargoes, when they come from any country where contagious diseases prevail. The directors of the health office will not permit them to come within the mole of Naples, and they are obliged to remain here forty or sixty days, and sometimes for a longer period.

It is a pleasing ride from the beach to the grotto, and a common excursion in the afternoon. On returning through the grotto towards evening, if the servant is not provided with a torch, it is the custom to purchase at a house close by the entrance a little bunch of bark stripped from the grape vines, which burns long enough to light you through the grotto.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

FAMILY PHYSICIAN. *No.* 6.

IN my last number, as may be remembered by a few, I admitted that gentlemen of the faculty are too fond of indulging in theoretical speculations. After remarking that all mankind were prone to the the same lazy habit, I stated some causes which particularly led physicians into it. The reasons there stated were founded upon a presumption that the Doctors knew the truth, but could not make it intelligible to others. But we are still more strongly induced to talk nonsense, when we are unable to make an explanation satisfactory to ourselves. For how shall we avow this to the patient, and thus authorize him to doubt our omniscience. Explain we must; and here again if others are satisfied with our sophistry, which they may easily be made to be, we are apt to feel contented with it likewise.

Let it not be supposed that I am making a precious confession of the ignorance of the faculty. Doubt not, gentle reader, that we are stored with science. But our knowledge is still progressive. We shall not for a century to come know what plants will spring up in a garden, when we know not what seed has been sown in it; nor shall we sooner than that be able to assign to every vegetable its true place by seeing its first germination, or by viewing a single leaf. The science of physicks is embarrassed by its relation to facts; it has not yet approached so near to pure intelligence as mathematicks.

Our patients lead us to adopt false doctrine not only by obliging us to talk, but also by hurrying us to act. We must do something, at least so the Doctors commonly think, or we shall be displaced, not by the more knowing, but by the more daring. Under such circumstances the medical man discovers that his reputation depends not so much on his real acquisitions, as evidenced in his practice, as upon keeping up a good face, and talking well.

But it is asked, what all this leads to? Must the patient detail his complaints and then receive his orders without any explanation of his situation, without any intimation of the importance of his disease, or of the probable course of it? Must no good lady follow the Doctor to the door to ask what he really thinks, and kindly to suggest her own remarks? I answer that I propose not such severe restrictions. If principles are straight lines, as practice is never governed by one principle alone, so the line of practice is variously inflected. The anxiety of the sick and their friends must be attended to, and even their curiosity gratified when it can easily be done. But if a physician is employed, in whom a proper confidence is reposed, he should be allowed his own time to form and to express his sentiments; or, at least, the patient and his friends should only give him occasional opportunities of making explanations, without imposing on him an absolute necessity of so doing. The physician at the same time should feel bound to state every thing within his knowledge, of which the communication can benefit the patient. C.

FOR THE MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

THOUGHTS ON TACITUS.

> *Nemora verò, et luci, et secretum ipsum, tantam mihi afferunt voluptatem, ut inter præcipuos carminum fructus numerem, quòd nec in strepitu* . . . . *componuntur* . . . . Tacitus Dial de Crat. 12.
>
> But woods and groves and solitary places to me afford sensations of a pure delight. It is there I enjoy the pleasures of a poetick imagination; and among those pleasures it is not the least that they are pursued far from the noise and bustle of the world. Murphy's Trans.

THE silent recesses of poetry are the residence of pure hearts and cultivated minds. Folly and vice do not disturb by their intemperance or criminality the distant retreat of the poet; and leisure is always to be found for strengthening the foundations of piety, and invigorating the germinations of genius. Nature affords continual subjects for the experiments of fancy, and her admirer always delights to exercise his mind in such pleasant recreations. He is surrounded by scenes, which may gratify the fullest exuberance of imagination; and before him are scattered thousands of objects, which by some peculiar attribute give new incitement to the playsomeness of fancy. Remoteness from noise and dissipation is to the pure lover of poetry approximation to beauty and truth. As he has receded from vice, he has advanced towards purity; and if he has left the pomp and prodigality of a Roman metropolis, he lives in the coolness and greenness of the valley, communing with his own spirit, or conversing with those illustrious intelligences, who are immortal in their writings. Secedit animus in loca pura atque innocentia, fruiturque sedibus sacris. "Free from those distractions, the poet retires to scenes of solitude, where peace and innocence reside. In those haunts of contemplation, he has his pleasing visions. He treads on consecrated ground."

Tacitus, in the Dialogus de Oratoribus, has in the person of Maternus described in finished composition the beauties and the charms of poetry. He has exhibited them in the strength of truth and in the elegance of fiction; and he has added new power to his picture by contrasting them with the disgust and deformity of the practice of law and publick declamation. This however was not the particular object of Tacitus. It only serves as a most beautiful introduction to the general subject to be afterwards fully discussed, the causes of corrupt eloquence. We are indeed highly indebted to the Roman historian for such a dialogue, and perhaps we ought not to regret, that he has discoursed more upon oratory, than poetry. Yet Tacitus might have entered farther into the description of the elegance of verse and the felicity of the poet. He might also have opposed the serenity of silence and the attractions of retreat to other causes of disquietude, than the perplexity of law and the tumults of eloquence. An orator, whose heart is bursting with ambition, and whose cheek is bloated with declamation, and a lawyer besieged with complaining clients and tormented with contradictory statements and testimony, are indeed far removed from the tranquillity and cheerful devotion of the worshipper of nature ; but the avaricious merchant, the wily speculator, and the idle gentleman are also the fit subjects for the experiments of spleen and the tortures of disappointment. The miserable beings, who haunt the publick and private places of dissipation, like thin ghosts of departed reality, are far from the sweet complacency of rural scenery and the endless delights of varying nature. Look at the sad countenances of some, and remark the malignant joyfulness of others, who are occupied in schemes, in folly, in riot, in nonsense, and wickedness,..,and then wonder at their wishes and pursuits. With such beings the poet has no sympathy. He hates their melancholy and their turbulence. He flies from their contact, as the traveller from a storm, and is glad that he knows their folly only by instinctive aversion ; and he rejoices that the silent contagion of their complaints never affects the salubrity of his groves, and that he hears their triumphs and huzzas only by the gentle undulations of distant noise, which softly flow to his retreat. If from necessity he is sometimes obliged to be present at scenes, which his poetry and purity reject, he sighs for his clear sky or shady woodwalk, and exclaims in the language of Maternus, Me verò dulces, ut Virgilius ait, Musæ, remotum a sollicitudinibus, et curis, et necessitate quotidie aliquid contra animum faciendi in illa sacra illosque fontes ferant. " But, as Virgil sweetly sings, me let the sacred Muses lead to their soft retreats, their living fountains and melodious groves, where I may dwell, remote from care, master of myself, and under no necessity of doing every day what my heart condemns."

No one will deny the felicity of the poet thus situated, for his cherished recess is far from the tumults and strife of the world, and yet if inclination prompt, he may taste in full luxuriance the various blessings of society. Virgil sometimes left his retreat and honoured the capital of the world with his presence ; he was welcomed at the banquets of Augustus, and at the theatre he received the applauses of the Roman people, Testes Augusti epistolæ, testes ipse populus, qui auditis in theatro versibus Virgilii, surrexit universus, et fortè præsentem spectantemque Virgilium veneratus es, sic quasi Augustum. " To prove this, the letters of Augustus are still extant ; and the people, we know, hearing in the theatre some verses of Virgil, when he himself was present, rose in a body and paid him every mark of homage, with a degree of veneration, nothing short of what they usually offered to the emperour." Yet such scenes were not congenial to the purity and elevation of his mind. He rather loved his green shades and sequestered walks ; he admired loneliness and cool tranquillity, where the heart may find utterance for devotion, and poetry may soften the passions to mellowness.

Rura mihi et riqui placeant in vallibus
amnes,
Flumina amem silvasque inglorias........
.......O qui me gelidis in vallibus Hæmi
Sistat, et ingenti ramorum protegat umbrâ ! Geor. 2. 485.

Oh may I yet, by fame forgotten, dwell
By gushing founts, wild wood, and shadowy dell !
Hide me, some God, where Hæmus' vales
extend
And boundless shade and solitude defend. Sotheby.

In his villa near Naples, Virgil enjoyed all the quiet and silence he loved. He was tired of the brawls and civil contentions, which had so long agitated the Roman commonwealth. Poetry he adored, and with the fullest inspiration of the Muses he composed his Georgics and part of the Æneid in the pleasantness of retirement. He there loved to muse on the mellowness of the landscape, to study the curious economy of his bees, and to revel in the ransack of Troy, and luxuriate in the future splendour of Iulus. Such was the lovely mind of the poet, that, though he was equal to the most dignified elevation in heroick poetry, he continually adverts to nature and her analogies. We accompany Æneas to hell with sublime feelings, and with great interest are we present at his combat with Turnus, yet how do we love to linger on the tranquil inlet, retreating from the boisterous ocean on the African shore; and is it not most pleasant, like Melibæus, to talk of liberty and rural life with fortunate old Tityrus, recubans sub tegmine fagi. Study the biography of Virgil, read his Eclogues and Georgics, and you will find how much his mind was devoted to the poetry of nature and its consequent felicity. He is continually delighted with the fruits of his own farm, the shady beech, the curling vines, the hour of evening, the high rock, the young sheep, and the wood-pigeon. With such scenes and objects before him, his fancy was fertile and his pictures were true. His reflections and remarks are perfectly correspondent. They have all the beauty of truth and all the loveliness of morals. It seems as if the purity and innocence of nature were fitted necessarily to excite feelings of goodness and sentiments of piety. Virgil, from his single objects or his landscapes, loves to glide gently into morals; the tale is told, and the application is known; the picture is completed, and its virtue is irresistible; the poet has instructed like a preacher, and the preacher has charmed like a poet.

Such sublime effects were partly owing to his retirement from the nonsense and business of the world. He fled from the stupid admiration of the crowd, and the incessant din of parasites and fools, to the tranquillity of his villa and the pure musick of nature. Here he passed his hours as his verses have celebrated, and enjoyed such felicity as Maternus has eulogized, Ac ne fortunam quidem vatum, et illud felix contubernium, comparare timuerim cum inquietâ et anxiâ oratorum vitâ: licet illos certamina et pericula sua ad consulatus evexerint, malo securum et secretum Virgilii secessum, in quo tamen neque apud divum Augustum gratiâ caruit, neque apud populum Romanum notitiâ. "If we now consider the happy condition of the true poet, and that easy commerce in which he passes his time, need we fear to compare his situation with that of the boasted orator, who leads a life of anxiety, oppressed by business and overwhelmed with care? But it is said, his contention, his toil, and danger, are steps to the consulship. How much more eligible was the soft retreat in which Virgil passed his days, beloved by the prince, and honoured by the people!"

QUINTILIAN,

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SILVA. *No.* 14.

“*Si cui fortè nonnunquam tempus voluptasque erit lucubratiunculas istas cognoscere, petitum impetratumque volumus; ut in legendo, quæ pridem scierint, non aspernentur quasi nota invulgataque: nam et quid tam remotum in litteris est, quin id tamen complusculi sciant?*”
A. Gellius, Præf. in Noct. Att.

MODERN SCHOLARS.

THERE is hardly a surer mark of the degeneracy of modern literature, than the inordinate attention which is now paid to bibliography. The knowledge of title pages has succeeded to the knowledge of subjects, and to ascertain the year of an *editio princeps* is now thought of as much importance and divides the learned as seriously, as to settle the true year of the birth of Christ. *Scire ubi aliquid posses invenire, magna pars eruditionis est*; but to know *where* a thing may be found is very consistent with ignorance of *what* may be found there. It is well worth inquiry whether the innumerable literary journals of the present age have promoted the cause of real learning. Certain it is, that the race of laborious scholars is nearly extinct. Bochart may perhaps be said to have been revived in Bryant; Walton and Castell in Kennicott, Bentley in Wakefield, and more than one scholar of the old school in Sir William Jones. But these men are now dead! Where now are the universal scholars, who can boast of being the legitimate successors of Selden, Grotius, Le Clerc, Vossius, and Bayle? What wonderfully crowded and comprehensive minds! Alas, we are hardly competent to the republication of their works. Damnosa quid non imminuit dies!

DEVOTIONAL POETRY.

IF I understand Dr. Johnson's remarks on this subject, in his life of Waller, he means only to say that the private exercises of a pious mind are not susceptible of a poetical dress, because if they are expressed at all they must be expressed in language, which has been appropriated to passions less sacred. Hence most of the sacred poetry of Dr. Watts may, by the occasional substitution of the names of mortal beauties, be converted into love songs and canzonettas. But when Johnson goes on to say, that the “enlargement of our comprehension, or the elevation of our fancy is rarely to be hoped from metrical devotion, because whatever is great, desirable, or tremendous is comprised in the name of the Supreme Being,” surely he must have forgotten the sacred poetry of David, and the sublime prayer of Habakkuk, which you cannot read without breathing short with rapture. “Omnipotence, he says, cannot be exalted.” True; but its operations may be described, and our conceptions be made to approximate toward what we can never fully embrace. “Infinity cannot be amplified.” Neither can it be in strictness comprehended; but the mind may be filled with illustrations of a subject which it cannot completely grasp. “Perfection cannot be improved.” But it may be contemplated, and admired, and this is all which devotional poetry aims at accomplishing. Surely the morning hymn of Adam and Eve in Milton, Thomson's hymn on the seasons, and the devotional pieces of Mrs. Barbauld are sufficient to rescue English verse from the censure of Johnson, when he says, "that all attempts to animate devotion by pious poetry have miscarried." The true reason of these miscarriages I suspect is this; that the finest poets have not been the most devotional christians, or the greatest saints have not been the best poets.

LITERARY ANECDOTE.

It is curious to observe what confusion, uncertainty, and contradiction involve one of our most noted literary anecdotes. Who has not heard the famous story of the student at one of the English universities, who was required to write a theme upon the miracle at Cana, and having delayed his task till he was in danger of being punished for his negligence, rescued himself by the following impromptu.

The modest water saw its God and blushed.

The truth is, that this is a literal version of the last line of a latin epigram of Crashaw, the first collection of whose poems was published in 1646. The line alluded to is the following.

Lympha pudica Deum vidit & erubuit.

This very epigram was afterwards translated by Aaron Hill, one of the heroes of the Dunciad, and passed for an original.

When Christ at Cana's feast by power divine
Inspired cold water with the warmth of wine,
See! cried they, while in reddening tide it gush'd
The bashful stream hath seen its God and blushed.

DR. AIKIN.

It was said by Aikin of the late Dr. Enfield, that he was perfect master of what may be called the *middle style*. If any living author may claim the honour of succeeding to this character it is Aikin himself. His "letters to his son" should be in the hands of every young man, upon his entrance into the world, in preference to Little's poems; and his "letters to a young lady upon a course of English poetry" are worth at least as much as any bonnet in Cornhill. There is a chasteness of sentiment, a susceptibility of poetical beauty, a coolness of decision, and a liberality of mind discovered in every line of this engaging writer, which show the influence of literature on a mind, which perhaps bears no very original stamp, but is solid enough to take a polish, and pure enough to reflect rays of genius, and of taste.

PORT FOLIO.

The editor of this work deserves the thanks of his countrymen for his perseverance in the ungrateful task of disciplining the taste of a money-getting age. I will venture to say that the literary history of modern times does not furnish a more honourable instance of a miscellany devoted exclusively to elegant literature, and relying for support on the intellectual sympathy and lettered generosity of a people, whose literary exports are so few, and so unprofitable, and who will long find, I fear, that the balance of trade is against them. We were glad to see this popular work assume at the beginning of the year a more graceful and convenient costume. If it would retain the admiration of the elegantium formarum spectatores, let it exhibit no wanton airs, no wicked looks, no Cyprian gestures. *Mille habet ornatus*; let us be always authorized to add, *mille decenter habet.*

BISHOP OF ALERIA.

I WAS long puzzled to know who was the bishop of Aleria, mentioned in Johnson's preface to Shakespeare, as the father of conjectural criticism. I have since found that his name was John Andrew, that he was secretary of the Vatican library, and was employed, at the first introduction of printing into Rome, in revising manuscripts, writing prefaces and dedications, and correcting proofs. Pope Paul II. appointed him to the bishopric of Aleria in the island of Corsica, where he died in the year 1493. "The republick of letters is indebted to him for an edition of Livy and of Aulus Gellius, printed at Rome, in folio, 1469; of Herodotus in 1475; and of Strabo, printed at Venice, in folio, in 1472; he also edited the epistles of Cyprian, and the works of St. Leo."

PUNNING EPIGRAM.

THE following epigram was written by Sannazarius, upon the erection of two bridges over the Seine, by Jucundus or Giocondo, who was afterwards joined with Raphael and San Gallo, after the death of Bramante, in superintending the erection of St. Peter's. The point cannot be preserved in English.

Jucundus geminos fecit tibi, Sequana, pontes:
Jure tuum potes hunc dicere *pontificem.*

ACCOUNT OF THE PRESENT STATE OF LITERATURE AND THE ARTS IN ITALY.

Collected in a tour through that country in 1803, by M. Fernow.

From the Monthly Magazine.

THE lateness of the season and other circumstances obliged me to use greater expedition on my return through Italy, than I had intended. I have not, therefore, been able to make all the inquiries I wished into the state of the literature and the arts in upper Italy. The few notices which I shall now communicate compose my whole collection.

I know not whether you have heard of the new *Academia Italiana.* It has existed about two years, and has this peculiarity, that it has no fixed place of residence. Its members, among whom are the most celebrated *literati* in every department of science, and many of the first artists, are dispersed throughout all Italy. It has likewise foreign associates in France, England, and Germany, whose number was at first fixed at forty, but which is now intended to be augmented to an hundred. The present president of the Academy is Count Vargas, who is known to the publick by his *Saggio sull' Epigramma Greco*, and other literary labours. He now resides at Naples. I called, at Siena, upon the secretary, Sachetti, who carries on the correspondence of the Academy, and superintends the publication of its Transactions, in order to inquire more minutely into the constitution and objects of this society, which, a short time previous to my departure from Rome, did me the honour to elect me a member.

I spent two days at Siena, and was employed the greatest part of that time in viewing the Sienese school, with which I had before but an imperfect acquaintance. Its finest master-pieces have fortunately been preserved from the tempest of the revolution, probably because in France this school is less known than it deserves to be. I saw in the churches a great number of exquisite pictures by Balthasar, Peruzzi, Sodena, Casolani, and others, which, in colouring and expression, far excel the works of the Florentine school, of the same period. The mannerists of this school, however, begin with Beccasumi, and Vanni, and, since their time, it has furnished no productions of merit. I could not procure a sight of the celebrated Madona, painted, in 1221, by Guido di Siena, which enabled the Sienese to dispute with the Florentines the merit of their Cimabue in the restoration of painting; for the church of St. Domenico, where it formerly hung, was destroyed by the late earthquake, and the pictures have been removed from it to a place to which I could not obtain admittance. The paintings executed by Pinturicchio, and by Rafael d'Urbino in his early youth, which are placed in the library adjoining the cathedral, were much more interesting to me than the floor of the latter figured by Beccafumi. If with these productions you compare those of Pinturicchio's pencil alone, the superiority of Rafael's genius immediately appears. The galleries of Spannocchi and Saracirvi are likewise worthy of notice; they contain many good pieces by Sienese masters, together with some capital productions of other schools.

At Leghorn I was most curious to see the library of Gaetano Poggiali, a man of letters, and the proprietor himself. He is a member of the Academy of Florence, and one of the most zealous *Cruscanti*. He is solely occupied in endeavouring to add to the reputation of the literature of his native country, by editions of classick works, combining elegance with the utmost correctness. For this purpose he devotes two days in the week to the collation of manuscripts and early editions, for which he has four assistants. Poggiali's library, which contains 10,000 volumes, is unrivalled by any in Italy, as well in the ancient and rare editions of Italian authors, as in those which are more modern and elegant. There is not a book in it which is not distinguished either by its rarity or correctness, or by some other typographical excellence. How little it wants of being complete, appears from the catalogue of the books which are still wanting, and whose number amounts, to about 800. He besides possesses a considerable collection of manuscripts, which, with the early editions, occupy another apartment; among these, he shewed me, as the most precious article in the collection, a manuscript copy of Dante, on parchment, which he considers as one of the most ancient, and probably contemporary with the author. Poggiali has a design of printing this work, which contains a great number of passages that vary considerably from the ordinary versions, and would clear up many obscurities in Dante, together with the marginal commentary with which it is accompanied.

Poggiali's bibliographick knowledge, acquired in thirty years spent in collection and study, is as *unique* as his library. He mentioned that he had some idea of publishing, at one time or other, a bibliography of Italian literature. Poggiali, in conjunction with four other members of the Academy of Florence, has, for several years, been collecting materials for a new edition of the great *Dizioniario della Crusca*, and he shewed me a whole chest full of papers, which contained spoils taken, for that purpose, from a multitude of authors both ancient and modern. He himself was unable to say when this new edition would appear. The present state of affairs in Italy is too unfavourable to large and expensive publications, but he thinks that the want of such a work, which is universally experienced, would procure a considerable demand for it. The *Parnasso Italiano*, which appeared at Leghorn, twelve years ago, in fifty pocket volumes; the collection of the *Novellieri Italiani*, in twenty five volumes octavo, and the works of Machiavelli, in 6 volumes octavo, besides many other works of ancient Italian authors, very elegantly printed at the same place, were edited by Poggiali, and are regarded as the most correct editions. With respect to Machiavelli, who is his favourite author, he told me, that he intended to publish another splendid edition, inferiour in no respect to Didot's or Bodoni's, and then he could die happy.

The impression produced by the cathedral of Siena, together with the *Battisterio* and the hanging tower, situated in a remote and solitary spot, where you scarcely meet a human creature, is singular and striking. The spectator imagines himself transported into another age, or into a country of the East. The deception was heightened by the unexpected sight of a train of ten or twelve loaded camels, which passed just at the moment, when we were leaving the cathedral to go to the Battisterio. About a league from Siena a colony of these animals has been established, where they propagate, and are employed in carrying burdens. In the cathedral of Siena, among the multitude of large pictures which decorate the walls, I found only one good piece, by Perin del Vaga; all the rest are scarcely worth looking at.

The printing-establishment of the Typographical Society of Pisa is a recent, but apparently a successful institution. The works printed at it are distinguished by the beauty of the letters, the goodness of the paper, and the correctness of the impression. As a proof I need only mention the new edition of Cesarotti's Works, of which nine volumes were printed when I was at Pisa. The tenth will contain the Academick Discourses of the author, which were never before published. Rosina, a man of letters, who conducts this establishment, gave me the first sheets of the volume. The discourses are written with great eloquence as well as elegance. Among the living authors of Italy, Cesarotti is, without dispute, one of those who possess the greatest talents and the most polished taste. The Society has announced splendid folio editions of the four first classick poets of Italy, Dante, Petrarca, Ariosto, and Tasso. The number of subscribers was complete, but they had not yet commenced printing. I, however, saw a proof-sheet of Dante, with whose works they begin. The paper and impression were very beautiful, but the form appeared rather too long in proportion to the breadth. The collection will form twelve volumes, each of which will cost three sequins (about 1*l.* 10*s.* English,) and the works of each author will be accompanied with his portrait, engraved by Morghen. It is now the fashion to print the name of each subscriber on the title of his copy, and that method will be followed with this work. The Society likewise prints a literary journal, which seldom pronounces any opinion where it cannot praise, and merely inserts a notice or extracts. The greatest part of the works of which it treats are foreign, and principally French; the literature of France being now exclusively cultivated in Italy. The native productions are so few, that a journal, devoted only to Italian literature, could scarcely be supported, especially if it were obliged to appear regularly at stated periods.

At Florence I could not stop longer than four days; and what are four days in a city which, next to Rome, contains the most numerous and the most precious treasures of the arts, and where four months would scarcely be sufficient to survey, with proper attention, all that is worthy of notice? I immediately relinquished the idea of seeing every thing, and confined myself to the most capital works and the first-rate artists residing in that city. The Palazzo Pitti is now scarcely worth the trouble of going to see it. The French carried off between sixty and seventy pictures, and among them all the good pieces it contained. In the Gallery I missed not a single article, either statue or picture, excepting the Venus de Medici. The two statues of the family of Niobe (the second daughter and the son, who lies dead and extended on the ground,) together with other pieces which had been removed to Palermo, had recently been brought back, and, to my great joy, I found them in their former places. The statuary, Santarelli, a native of Rome, who had resided, for the last ten years, at Florence, is one of the ablest artists in his line. He likewise imbosses portraits in wax, and his success in taking likenesses procured him abundance of employment during the war. He has likewise much talent for mechanicks. At the house of Fabre, a pupil of David's school, who obtained some distinction in the last exhibition of the Academy of Rome, before the death of Basseville, and has, since that period, constantly resided at Florence, I saw an historical picture, the subject of which is taken from Alfieri's Tragedy of Saul, and represents a vision of that king, tormented by his evil conscience. It would be difficult to discover the subject, without some explanation; but the artist, in excuse of himself, says, that he chose this circumstance at the particular desire of Alfieri, who had much more talent for the composition of a tragedy, than of a picture. I never observed in any modern painter such a perfect execution of all the parts, such a masterly disposition of the colours; and in the mechanical part of his profession Fabre is indisputably as accomplished an artist as can possibly exist. The plan and ground of the picture, which comprise a good deal of landscape, are so exquisitely beautiful with regard to the disposition, colours, and proportions, that, excepting Reinhart, I know no landscape-painter who could excel it. The same commendation may be given to all the other subordinate parts of the piece, but does not apply to the principal object: for accuracy in the details, brilliancy in the colouring, and the highest degree of perfection in the execution, are not sufficient to form a good dramatick picture: and those are almost the only good qualities of this piece. The composition is patched, the action theatrical, the expression overcharged, and the style has the usual faults of the French school; the figures are invariably muscular, the drapery precisely folded into a thousand small plaits, and the light thrown upon the most brilliant colours, so that the eye has no repose, excepting in the landscape. The carnation resembles ivory, and the naked parts are daubed. The tone of the whole is much too glaring and lively for a grave subject. At the same artist's I saw several fine portraits, in which his great mechanical merit is ably displayed. Among these were the portraits of General Clarke, who commands at Florence, and of the Queen of Etruria, both striking likenesses. Fabre possesses a beautiful ancient portrait, which he attributes to Raphael, and six admirable landscapes, two by Caspar, two by Poussin, and two by Annibal Caracci, which are all in the highest preservation, and are alone a sufficient inducement to visit the artist. Another French painter, named Desmarez, likewise deserves the traveller's notice. He belongs also to the French school, but a greater contrast cannot exist than between him and Fabre, and it is interesting to see the former immediately after the latter. Fabre has neither invention nor fire; his whole art is mechanical, and he aims only at neatness and perfection, with which he charms the eye of the amateur. Desmarez possesses the talent of invention, fire, and energy; he is partial to grave, pathetick, and tragick scenes, and his colouring is suitable to the gravity of his subjects, but it is rude, inaccurate, inharmonious, and rather repulsive than agreeable to the eye. He has more talent than art. If both agree in any point, it is in that which they derive from their common school; in the theatrical disposition and overcharged expression of the postures and attitudes, in which consists the real essence of the French school, and, perhaps, generally of the French manner of considering nature. Desmarez, however, incontestably possesses a genius for dramatick painting, and a creative imagination, of which Fabre is destitute; only it is a pity that he has been spoiled by his school. All the compositions I saw at his house, consisting principally of small sketches, painted in oil, were of tragick subjects; for instance, the death of Lucretia, the death of Virginia, the death of Cæsar, &c. a dying Cato, as large as life, tearing his bowels out of his body, is a truly horrible figure, which he executed for Lord Bristol, and had almost completed; but as that eccentrick Mæcenas of the arts is now dead, he will scarcely find another customer for it. This the artist himself apprehended when I brought him the unexpected account of his Lordship's death from Rome. It was late before Desmarez embraced the profession. The revolution, which has otherwise been so prejudicial to the arts, brought them, in him, a worthy pupil. Before the revolution he was secretary to the French embassy at Stockholm, and practised at his leisure for his own amusement; but when he lost that post, he devoted himself to the art with such zeal and success, that he has arrived at this degree of perfection in the most difficult of its branches. He is still in the prime of life, so that probably his talents may not yet be completely developed. He lives entirely in his art, has a cultivated understanding, gravity of character, and yet great vivacity in conversation. I should rather have taken this artist for an Italian than a Frenchman, and to me his acquaintance was extremely interesting. You may be sure I did not omit to visit our worthy countryman, Don Filippo Hackert. He does not indeed reside here, as he did at Naples, in a royal mansion, but he has handsome and spacious apartments in a palace; and the great number of his works, some just begun, others half finished or completed, proves him, notwithstanding his increasing age, to be the same active and industrious artist that he has been all his life. Through the immense multitude of pieces which he has continually in hand, his art has at length become purely mechanical. Hackert composes little; he has enjoyed the felicity of residing the best part of his life in a country, where nature is so highly picturesque that the artist may produce a fine picture by only copying the views, and filling up the fore-ground, not so much from his own invention as from studies after nature. Of this description are most of Hackert's pieces. To the poetry of the art he never attained. His landscapes are poetick only in the same degree as nature, which he copied, possessed a poetick character. His distances are in general fine, and have the genuine tone of an Italian climate. Almost all his middle grounds are now of a uniform bright green, and his fore-grounds of a pale bluish green colour, which not rarely destroys the harmony of the back-grounds. The figures commonly introduced into his pictures are the shepherds, shepherdesses, herdsmen, and cattle of those countries where he found his originals; but the ladies and gentlemen, with whom he was frequently obliged to decorate the landscapes which he painted at Naples for the king, are intolerable. Hackert was just employed upon three landscapes, destined for Weimer, all of which were about half finished. It was the latter end of July when I saw him, and yet he assured me that all three would be sent off to Weimer in September. Two of them, a View near Rome from the Villa Madama, over Pont Molle, of the Sabine Mountains, illuminated by the setting Sun; and another of Fiesole and the Vale of Arno, near Florence, are for the Duke of Weimer, and the third for an English gentleman residing in that town. Of the other numerous paintings of this artist, which I saw, I shall say nothing. A person can scarcely look at all Hackert's paintings in two hours; they fill two spacious rooms, and form a small gallery. The spectator would be induced to believe, that they are the productions of several persons, though they are the labour of his hands alone. I cannot, however, deny, that Hackert's whole system has something of the air of a manufactory.

I should like to say a few words concerning the master-pieces of modern sculpture, the statues of Michael Angelo Buonarotti, in the Capella dei Depositi, the architecture of which is the work of the same artist. But when a person attempts to speak of the *chef d'œuvres* of the art, he feels that he ventures upon something that baffles description. I have seen these works at several times, and always with new, with increased admiration, and with reverence for that sublime genius by which they were created. All capital works of art possess the property, and it is a test of their excellence, that they give the more pleasure the oftener they are seen, and the more the essence of the art is in the mean time developed to the observer. His admiration continues to increase, the more intimate his acquaintance with them becomes. Such is likewise the case with the works of Michael Angelo. That fulness of character, so distinctly expressed, that colossal magnitude, that boldness and energy, those mighty forms and proportions, irresistibly seize the senses, and the imagination is strained to embrace the infinity of these productions. The spectator thinks he can never sufficiently impress these extraordinary performances on his fancy; he turns from one group to another, and, as if confined in a magick circle, he is unable to leave them. They are not figures copied from reality, or projected on its scanty proportions; they are not the ideal productions of a lively Grecian imagination, which drew down to the earth Olympus with all its immortal inhabitants; they are the pure originals of an original génius, which, soaring above reality, and despising imitation, combined the lofty spirit of the Sacred Writings and of Dante's Poems, with the rude, ungovernable energy of his age, and boldly transfused them into all his works, whose wild, imposing, and majestick grandeur, is only an impression of his own individuality. And it is exactly this which seems to augment the admiration of these works: you admire their magnitude, their original character; but you are astonished at the gigantick mind which could create such a world. No artist has displayed himself in his works with such truth, such strength, and such uniformity, as Michael Angelo. He every where appears the same, but only at different moments and periods of his life. Thus, for example, in the cieling of Sextus's chapel, he appears in the flower of his genius; in the Last Judgment he is a vigorous old man, full of profound experience and matured energy; but the blossom of his genius has faded, and you may perceive that his art grows old with him. Lastly, in his two pictures in the Pauline chapel, we view him, together with his art, in the weakness and decrepitude of hoary age. But while I am speaking of the artist, I run the risk of forgetting his works. I intended to say something concerning the Four Periods of the Day, and his figure of Giuliano de Medici (who, in the morning of life, was plunged into the gloomy empire of death,) which, for the living and speaking expression in the position and attitude, is inimitable. On the sarcophagus at his feet, lie the two exquisite figures, Aurora, and Crepusculo. The former shews that Michael Angelo was sensible to female beauty, and knew perfectly well how to express it; but beauty of a sublime, of a grave character. The charming face of Aurora is animated by an expression of melancholy, which imparts to it a moving interest. The body and limbs of this figure are exquisitely formed and disposed. In the bosom, however, Michael Angelo's idea of female beauty does not appear founded on the most perfect model; for in this figure, as well as in that of Night, the bosom is faulty; the two hemispheres are placed at too great a distance, and their form is not handsome. But so much the more bold, powerful, and masculine is the broad chest of Crepusculo, who, as well as Day, is throughout of a gigantick, colossal nature, energetick, and wonderful, such as Michael Angelo alone knew how to create. I cannot say much in commendation of Night, though much celebrated by poets. Considered impartially, she is a huge caricature on woman, presenting disagreeable forms snd striking disproportions, whether you examine her unnaturally long, flat body, disfigured with folds and wrinkles; or the leg, which is much too long for the thigh; or the ugly bosom, or the ungraceful position; in which last quality she is rivalled by Day, her companion on the same sarcophagus. Night has been praised because her sleep is so perfectly natural; the expression of the face is certainly a true representation of a person in sound sleep; but who sleeps in such a constrained posture?* Next to the original magnitude of these figures, the manner in which they are executed demands the admiration of the connoisseur, and the study of the artist. The figures are not quite finished in many parts, and still cleave here and there to the rude block of marble which serves for their basis; but where they are finished, the chisel has been employed with wonderful ability. Michael Angelo knew not how to paint in marble like Canova, but how to sketch and to model with the chisel. All the parts on which the light falls, and which are exposed to the view, are finished in the highest degree, almost to a polish; on the contrary, in those which recede into the shade, or are otherwise withdrawn from the view, the chisel is perceived without any farther polish. No neglect appears in the form, which is every where equally perfect and complete, but merely in the parts which are concealed; this negligence however, evinces the genius of a master. This liberty taken by Michael Angelo with the mechanical portion of his art, this evident contempt for every thing superfluous (for whatever is not essential, and at most can only please the eye) gives to his execution that solemn grandeur and boldness, that lofty and haughty character, which are peculiar to his productions. But I must part from you, ye sublime creations of the sublimest genius, who sheds a lustre upon the age of modern art; I must leave the sanctuary which incloses you, perhaps for ever. Adieu, ye noble forms! never may the rude hands of barbarians drag you from your native home! And thou sublime, divine genius! drop a spark of thy fiery spirit into our enervated art, and inspire it anew with more solemn, more grand, and more manly conceptions.

To be continued.

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* That these four figures are intended to represent the four times of the day,...Day and Night, Aurora and Twilight,...we are informed only by tradition; and it should be observed, that, with the exception of Night, who is asleep, none of the figures have any characteristick to confirm such a supposition.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

REMARKER. No. 8.

—harmless mirth and salutary wo. JOHNSON.

IT is the opinion of some persons by no means deficient in good sense and respectability, that theatrical representations are injurious to the morals of a people. Imprest with this conviction they opposed the establishment of a theatre in this town, and now, in many instances, abstain from attending it.

Prejudices of this nature arise from a narrow education and ignorance of the world; since no civilized people ever existed, among whom the dramatick muse was not a distinguished favourite, whose smiles have been courted, and whose labours have been applauded by the best and wisest men of all nations.

It would be superfluous to recur to the sages of antiquity, and inform the reader, that Socrates and Cicero were in the habit of attending theatrical exhibitions, the latter of whom was bound by the closest ties of intimacy and affection to the celebrated Roscius. It might plausibly be objected, that these men, though virtuous and wise, were yet pagans, and consequently not obliged to lead the strict exemplary life which christianity requires. It ill becomes those, who have embraced the gospel, to encourage by their presence the idle amusements of a wicked world, and to sit listening for hours together, amidst a promiscuous crowd, to the studied humours and fictitious distresses of buffoons and mimicks. But if it can be shown, that the great teachers of christian morality, and defenders of christian doctrines, have not only attended, but *written* plays, it will follow, that theatres are by no means so dangerous as bigotry and ignorance apprehend. Addison, Young, and Johnson were not men, who would knowingly have encouraged immorality, or have lessened the influence of religion.

The first of these writers wrote in defence of revelation, and was not less distinguished by his piety than his literature. Since the invention of letters, no mortal author ever produced so wonderful an effect on the morals and manners of society. He brought philosophy from the libraries of the learned, and introduced her at the toilettes of ladies. During the publication of the Spectator, national improvement became visible, conversation took a more interesting and edifying turn, dulness and impertinence fled before the mighty magician, and even infidelity lost a portion of her audacity, and grew more modest and unassuming. Now this great sage not only attended plays, but in the immortal work alluded to, which was expressly written for the religious and moral improvement of a nation, frequently discusses theatrical subjects, and passes numerous encomiums on his contemporary dramatists. Nay, he wrote plays himself, and his tragedy of Cato, whilst it increased his reputation as a writer, in no respect diminished his authority as a moral and religious instructor.

Dr. Young was distinguished by a religious sensibility, which bordered on enthusiasm. Yet christian and clergyman as he was, he thought it neither inconsistent with his profession, nor derogatory from his dignity, to write plays. His Revenge, one of the noblest productions in our language, will remain an everlasting monument of his genius, and will be read and acted as long as that language shall be understood.

If any man of the last century stands eminently high in his religious, moral, and literary character, that man is Dr. Samuel Johnson. This great moralist, notwithstanding the strictness of his principles, was fond of the drama, and was the intimate friend of David Garrick. He would probably have written many plays, had his Irene succeeded, but on the ill success of this piece turned his attention to other departments of literature.

Let none therefore, who do not surpass the moral and religious worth of Addison, Young, and Johnson, inveigh against the immoral tendency of dramatick exhibitions. The charge is not true at the present day, and were Jeremy Collier to rise from the grave, he might justly ridicule the insipidity, but could not truly arraign the morality of the modern drama. Unfounded censures of this nature ought to be confined to the monks of the cloister, or the fanaticks of the tabernacle. As Johnson expresses it in my motto, 'harmless mirth and salutary wo' are at present the innocent offspring of the theatre, and I have sometimes experienced as much edification from a good play as from a good sermon. But should the play chance to be some modern novelty, of no intrinsick worth, yet still I can derive much amusement from the talents of the more distinguished performers, the broad farce of Twaits, the chaster humour of Bernard, and the buskined dignity and electrifying energy of Cooper.

C.

THE SLAVE OF DISCONTENT.

Translated for the Anthology from La Decade.

We sometimes meet in the world those pleasant originals, whose part here below seems intended to serve only for the amusement and instruction of their fellow creatures. I have just made an acquaintance with a being of this nature. His history might fill volumes; but as I have neither the time nor inclination to write, I shall content myself with offering only a slight sketch of his character.

Giacomo Della Rocca was born in Italy on the banks of the Tiber, and not far distant from the most celebrated city in the universe. He was most uncommonly prone to be dissatisfied with every thing around him. At the age of twenty he made an examination of every different government, without being able to discover one to which he could accommodate himself. This throne was founded on the ruins of liberty, that was tottering to its fall; on a third was seated a vicious prince; in another monarchy, there were too many wise institutions; farther on, every thing seemed to him in disorder. In one republick riches only were es-seemed; in another all was dissimulation; this was composed only of speculators; that of proud supercilious nobles: and as to all the others it was difficult to determine what they were. Though he had a choice, and though the forms of government were very various, yet S. Della Rocca, from these circumstances, was not more happy. Sole heir of an immense fortune, he was highly caressed by his parents, who, observing with anxiety the gloomy and discontented character of their son, proposed that he should travel.

But alas here was another embarrassment! what climate could find attractions for him who was born under the mild skies of Italy, in the bosom of that country, the nursery of the arts, on that fertile, favoured soil! He might indeed seek for other men in order to compare them with his fellow countrymen, to gain experience and knowledge of human nature; but to seek a country more blessed by the orb of day, more caressed by nature! .... this would be madness. No matter; it is the wish of S. Della Rocca to travel: it is indeed the only means of diverting his mind. His parents agree to it, and consent to the departure of their son.

To what country shall he go? This is not easy to decide upon. To England? There the weather is too cold, the atmosphere is thickened with fog; there they burn coal; the people are so independent, that they can insult you with impunity; in that country they live on flesh; a most horrible repast for S. Della Rocca. No, we will not go to England.

Shall we to the North? Then we should perish with cold. I will not hear of Scandinavia. Prussia is too military. In Germany there is too much ceremony. The ice of the North is melancholy and dangerous. The Helvetian is not polished enough. Batavia is a low, marshy country. The air of Brabant is damp, thick, and unhealthy. In Turkey the women are condemned to seclusion, or only permitted to appear veiled. Poland is a flat, uniform country, and S. Della Rocca loves variety. All that might have determined him for this last country is, that his mother possessed a great estate there. But interest was not his inducement for travelling, and in this respect all countries were indifferent to him. Assailed by a thousand desires, he sees only a tiresome uniformity in the happiness he enjoyed: a mild, temperate climate was necessary to Giacomo, where there was a variety of seasons; a land inhabited by amiable, lively, graceful, sensible women, and by men of an affability of manners, whose occupations were varied, and to whom the ennui of life was unknown. .... Behold then S. Della Rocca in the road to Paris.

However teeming with pleasures is this theatre of wonders, it is yet incompetent to fulfil the wishes of a madman, whose misfortune is an eternal desire of novelty. The women were not such as his imagination had painted them: there was to much assurance in their air; no modesty bowed down their heads; they possessed the talent of smiling, without the inclination; of being absent from design; of looking upon one object without perceiving it, only to contemplate another to which their eyes were not apparently directed; of listening, without hearing; of welcoming with kindness those, for whom they felt only disgust; one held negligently to her eye an opera glass, for which she had no need; another supported the gaze of the beholder with an air of ignorance that she was the object of contemplation, and, in order to shew a delicate hand, knew how to remove a lock of hair which in no way incommoded her; in short, the eyes of this one would have appeared entirely lifeless, without the fire of voluptuousness, or the lightning of envy; and the red and white had replaced on her complexion the roses and lilies. He did not tell me under what aspect he beheld the men, or what he thought of them; all that I know is, that he soon embarked for America.

The war had just ceased, and the new world offered to the old a form of government which possibly might satisfy S. Della Rocca. But he carried also into this country his melancholy character.—Life appeared to him only a moment, tediously prolonged; the air was always too thick or too sharp; the foliage had not variety enough of shades; the morning was scarcely different from the evening, and one day constantly resembled another. Besides, they might have formed much better laws at Philadelphia; the people had not sufficiently profited by their lessons of experience; they ought to have better consulted the manners and relations of the state. As to the country, it was in vain that the striking beauties of an immense view, varied by the luxuriant hand of nature, offered themselves to his eye. It was not for him that bloomed the enamel of the meadows; that the birds warbled their songs of melody, that the flowers exhaled their perfumes, or the rivulets meandered through verdant plains.

I shall not follow our discontented friend through all his travels, and the reader will permit me to leave him to pay a visit, alone, to the East and West Indies, and to Africa, that he might there disapprove of whatever was done, blame all customs, all institutions, finding that the man of nature was too savage, and that civilized people were too far removed from nature.

After an absence of ten years, he returned to Europe; and arrived just at that period, when the division of Poland took place, three portions of which had been made without its consent. The estates of our traveller's mother, situated in a palatinate of the centre, were divided into three lots, and each of them confiscated; one by the empress of Russia, who was not enriched by it; another by the king of the Romans, who had no expectation of advantage from it; and the third by the king of Prussia, who rendered justice only to his ancient subjects. Here certainly was sufficient to offend a far more gentle disposition than that of S. Della Rocca. But, by an inconceivable contradiction, he was only moderately affected by it, and as he saw nothing more than an abuse of the generality of institutions, and being most singularly whimsical, he consoled himself by arguments that would have discouraged any other being but himself. "Had I to contend with but one crowned head," said he to himself, "I would hazard a few remonstrances; but to complain to three different princes, one of whom might send me into Siberia, another imprison me, and the third make me a proposition to enter his army....I find that either of these rewards is not worth the trouble that I should give myself in obtaining them."—Therefore he remained quiet.

This diminution of his fortune,

seemed to render him more reasonable. What was the cause of his reconciliation with mankind would have been for others a motive for renouncing all connexion with them. But he learns that the most powerful nation of the world has suddenly changed its government, and is desirous of giving itself new laws. Here is a fine opportunity for a visionary reformer of constitutions, in whose eyes all are bad or imperfect! S. Della Rocca suffers it not to escape, and behold him anew in the capital of this regenerated people. He mingles among schemers, he examines, he approves, he comments, he adopts. But the work, in which he has been assisting, is soon replaced by some other. His labour commences anew: and this project has the fate of the first; that is to say, it is adopted, overthrown, and replaced.

Whilst he mingled in what did not concern him, those things which ought to have occupied him were disposed of without his knowledge. To be brief, his large fortune is annihilated. The blow had been felt as far as his native country, and his estates no longer belonged to him in consequence of a measure, about which it had been forgotten to ask his advice.

The result of this event was very happy, because it obliged him to call into exercise his resources and his talents to gain a subsistence. He soon contracted the habit of employment, and this habit dissipated the ennui, which till then had overwhelmed him. Every moment being occupied, there remained no time for him to blame, or, like too many other idlers, to regulate the state.

Having followed all the periods of the revolution of the country that he inhabited, he had remarked that he had in no one of them discovered a single being contented with himself or with those around him. At first loud exclamations were uttered; then, frozen by terror, all where hushed to silence, and driven to concealment; was there a change, they inveighed against it; was it followed by another, they complained. At length order appeared on firm foundations, property was secured and respected, the adversary was deprived of the means of injuring, the inclination only remained to him. The fugitives were recalled, and the honest man retired to his evening's rest, without being tormented by the recollection of the past, or fear of the future. Very happily for S. Della Rocca, and without doubt for the people in the bosom of whom he lived, this new order of things coincided with his ideas. But what was his astonishment at the sight of these men, who had ardently desired the reestablishment of order, and of those, to whom it restored tranquillity! Some shook their heads, others shrugged their shoulders, a third appeared to suppress something even while he approved, a fourth spoke mysteriously, and without explanation.

Impatient of these *ifs* and these *ands*, S. Della Rocca, having become a man of gallantry since he had inhabited a country famed for the reign of the fair sex, cultivated the society of the ladies. It was quite another thing! The old found not the French of the present day sufficiently gallant; the young complained of the reforms that were wished to be introduced among some very agreeable customs, that had come into vogue within the last seven or eight years.

S. Della Rocca finished by concluding, both from his experience and observations, that man was an animal very difficult to please; who, in the midst of real blessings, was always occupied about some imaginary good. Giacomo, judging by the spectacle before him how ridiculous he must himself have appeared at the time he was so continually censuring every thing around him, corrected himself of his follies; and thus the discontent of others has effectually cured his own.

J. D. MUSSET-PATHAY.

CHARACTER OF ROUSSEAU.

From Fellowes's Christian Philosophy.

Rousseau has been too often extolled as a philanthropist. Mr. Burke said of him, that he loved his kind and hated his kindred. The exposure of his children, by whatever sophistry it may be excused, is an indelible blot on his humanity; and invalidates all his pretensions to philanthropy. For, can that philanthropy be genuine, which is founded on the extinction of the parental affections; and which, with more than savage brutality, forsakes the poor innocents it brings into the world?

Every page of Rousseau glows with the captivations of that sentimental luxury, of which he is so great a master; and which he arrays in all the blandishments of eloquence. Hence the source of that admiration, which his writings have so universally excited.—Though his judgment, as a philosopher, was not profound; yet his tase was so exquisite, that he strews flowers in the most rugged way, and interests the passions and the fancy, in the investigation of the most abstract propositions. This is his great excellence.

In his new Eloise, the interest consists, not so much in the diversity or the combination of the incidents, as in the beauty of the sentiment, and the magick of the diction. The picture of Julia is highly finished; but it leaves on the mind more impressions of respect than of tenderness, of admiration than of love—At times she appears an heterogeneous mixture of apathy and passion, of prudence and of coquetry. In some situations she wants tenderness, in others firmness; and she is often less governed by the warm impulses of affection, than by the abstractions of philosophy.

His Emilius, though marked by the illuminating touches and the original conceptions of genius, yet, considered as a system, is more conspicuous for its singularity than its truth. It pourtrays a system of education, which, if it were universally adopted, would keep the human species in a state of permanency between light and darkness, between savage barbarity and civilized refinement. It would counteract the moral and physical improvement of man, the progress of knowledge, and the productiveness of industry.

Though Rousseau had little beneficence, yet his writings, breathing nothing but the reciprocal love and kindness and confidence of the Golden Age, contributed, by their wide diffusion and their enchanting eloquence, to render humanity fashionable; and they have, at least, this merit,—that no man can well rise from reading them, without feeling a higher respect for his species.

That extreme and febrile sensibility, which was the characteristick peculiarity of Rousseau, while it proved the origin of many of his miseries, was, perhaps, a principal source of his greatness. It imparted a singular delicacy, freshness, and animation to every page of his writings. His feelings, in whatever channel they flowed, rushed on with a resistless impetuosity; but, in the end, they made a wreck of his understanding. His judgment was lost in the unremitting turbulence of his sensations; and in some intervals of insanity, he exhibited the melancholy prospect of genius crumbling into ruins.

The language of Rousseau was always a faithful mirror of what was passing in the heart; which now thrilled with rapture, and now raged with passion. Of his style, the peculiar characteristick is exuberance of imagery; profusion, without distinction of lustre. It often resembles a landscape, in which there is a great assemblage of beautiful forms, without any intermediate spots of barrenness; but without any objects of a striking and prominent grandeur; and, in the contemplation of which, the eye is, at last, satiated by the uniformity. Yet, highly coloured as is the eloquence of Rousseau, I believe that the generality of readers would peruse his works with less relish, if they were less adorned. And it must be confessed, that the ornaments, with which they are embellished, are not the frippery and patchwork of a paltry artist, but the rich copiousness of an highly saturated imagination; and they often possess a charm, of which even the apathy of the coldest critick can hardly be insensible to the fascination. He who wishes to perfect himself in those delicacies of language or curious felicities of phraseology, which impress a palpable form, a living entity on the fleeting tints and sensations of the heart, should carefully analyse the genius of the style of Rousseau; should search into the causes, from which result the beauty and splendour of his combinations; and endeavour to extract from an attentive perusal of the Eloise and the Emilius, a portion of that taste by which they were inspired.

DR. PARR'S CHARACTER OF

DR. JORTIN.

As to Jortin, whether I look back to his verse, to his prose, to his critical or to his theological works, there are few authors to whom I am so much indebted for rational entertainment or for solid instruction. Learned he was, without pedantry. He was ingenious, without the affectation of singularity. He was a lover of truth, without hovering over the gloomy abyss of skepticism, and a friend to free-inquiry, without roving into the dreary and pathless wilds of latitudinarianism. He had a heart which never disgraced the powers of his understanding. With a lively imagination, an elegant taste, and a judgment most masculine and most correct, he united the artless and amiable negligence of a schoolboy. Wit without ill nature, and sense without effort, he could, at will, scatter upon every subject; and in every book, the writer presents us with a near and distinct view of the real man.

His style, though inartificial, is sometimes elevated: though familiar, it is never mean; and the employed upon various topicks of theology, ethicks, and criticism, it is not arrayed in any delusive resemblance, either of solemnity, from fanatical cant,...of profoundness, from scholastick jargon,...of precision, from the crabbed formalities of cloudy philologists,...or of refinement, from the technical babble of frivolous connoisseurs.

At the shadowy and fleeting reputation, which is sometimes gained by the petty frolicks of literary vanity, or the mischievous struggles of controversial rage, Jortin never grasped. Truth, which some men are ambitious of seizing by surprize in the trackless and dark recess, he was content to overtake in the broad and beaten path: And in the pursuit of it, if he does not excite our astonishment by the rapidity of his strides, he, at least, secures our confidence by the firmness of his step. To the examination of positions advanced by other men, he always brought a mind, which neither prepossession had seduced, nor malevolence polluted. He imposed not his own conjectures as infallible and irresistible truths, nor endeavoured to give an air of importance to trifles, by dogmatical vehemence. He could support his more serious opinions, without the versatility of a sophist, the fierceness of a disputant, or the impertinence of a buffoon.... more than this...he could *relinquish or correct* them with the calm and steady dignity of a writer, who, while he yielded something to the arguments of his antagonists, was conscious of retaining enough to command their respect. He had too much discernment to confound difference of opinion with malignity or dulness, and too much candour to insult, where he could not persuade. Though his sensibilities were neither coarse nor sluggish, he yet was exempt from those fickle humours, those rankling jealousies, and that restless waywardness, which men of the brightest talents are too prone to indulge. He carried with him, into every station in which he was placed, and every subject which he explored, a solid greatness of soul, which could spare an inferiour, though in the offensive form of an adversary, and endure an equal with, or without, the sacred name of friend. The importance of commendation, as well to him who bestows, as to him who claims it, he estimated not only with justice, but with delicacy, and therefore he neither wantonly lavished it, nor withheld it austerely. But invective he neither provoked nor feared; and, as to the severities of contempt, he reserved them for occasions where alone they *could* be employed with propriety, and where, by *himself*, they always *were* employed with effect....for the chastisement of arrogant dunces, of censorious sciolists, of intolerant bigots in every sect, and unprincipled impostors in every profession. Distinguished in various forms of literary composition, engaged in various duties of his ecclesiastical profession, and blessed with a long and honourable life, he nobly exemplified that rare and illustrious virtue of charity, which Leland, in his reply to the letter-writer, thus eloquently describes. "CHARITY never misrepresents; never ascribes obnoxious principles or mistaken opinions to an opponent, which he himself disavows; is not so earnest in refuting, as to fancy positions never asserted, and to extend its censure to opinions, which *will perhaps* be delivered. Charity is utterly averse to *sneering*, the most despicable species of ridicule, that most despicable subterfuge of an impotent objector. Charity never supposes, that all sense and knowledge are confined to a particular circle, to a district, or to a country: Charity never condemns and embraces principles in the same breath; never *professes* to confute, what it *acknowledges* to be just, never presumes to bear down an adversary with confident assertions; charity does not call dissent insolence, or the want of implicit submission a want of common respect."

The esteem, the affection, the reverence which I feel for so profound a scholar, and so honest a man, as Dr. Jortin, make me wholly indifferent to the praise and censure of those, who vilify, without reading, his writings, or read them, without finding some incentive to study, some proficiency in knowledge, or some improvement in virtue.

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POETRY.

For the Anthology.

VERSES ON SPRING.

AGAIN the strength of Winter fails,
His ruffian forces disappear,
And now the downy-pinion'd gales
Loose from his grasp the youthful year.

Returning Spring with timid eye,
Her virgin bosom cold with dew,
Bids her attendant graces fly,
And nature's faded charms renew.

Again, amid the darkening grove,
Is heard the vernal voice of joy,
Again the magick powers of love
Their softly winning arts employ.

With merry heart, and cheerful song
The ploughman treads the blackening field,
Delighted as he moves along
To count what future harvests yield.

Th' impatient sailor leaves the shore,
Adventuring on the watery waste,
Undaunted hears the surges' roar
And fearless braves the howling blast.

Yes, spring returns; but wanting now
The joys which earlier years have known,
The sunny smile, the unclouded brow,
Which marked the Spring of Life, have flown.

H******, April 11, 1806.

DEATH AND DAPHNE.

To an agreeable young lady, but extremely lean.

By Swift.

DEATH went upon a solemn day
At Pluto's hall his court to pay:
The phantom, having humbly kist
His grisly monarch's sooty fist,
Presented him the weekly bills
Of doctors, fevers, plagues, and pills.
Pluto, observing since the peace
The burial-article decrease,
And, vext to see affairs miscarry,
Declar'd in council, Death must marry;
Vow'd he no longer could support
Old bachelors about his court;
The interest of his realm had need
That Death ſhould get a numerous breed;
Young Deathlings, who, by practice made
Proficient in their father's trade,
With colonies might stock around
His large dominions under ground.

A consult of coquettes below
Was call'd, to rig him out a beau:
From her own head Megæra takes
A periwig of twisted snakes;
Which in the nicest fashion curl'd
(Like toupets of this upper world),
With flour of sulphur powder'd well,
That graceful on his shoulders fell;
An adder of the sable kind
In line direct hung down behind;
The owl, the raven, and the bat,
Clubb'd for a feather to his hat;

His coat, an usurer's velvet pall,
Bequeath'd to Pluto, corpse and all.
But, loth his person to expose
Bare, like a carcase pickt by crows,
A lawyer o'er his hands and face
Stuck artfully a parchment-case.

. . . .

Thus furnished out, he sent his train
To take a house in Warwick-lane:
The "faculty," his humble friends,
A complimental message sends:
Their president in scarlet gown
Harangu'd, and welcom'd him to town.

But Death had business to dispatch;
His mind was running on his match,
And, hearing much of Daphne's fame,
His "majesty of terrors" came,
Fine as a colonel of the guards,
To visit where she sate at cards:
She, as he came into the room,
Thought him Adonis in his bloom.
And now her heart with pleasure jumps;
She scarce remembers what is trumps;
For such a shape of skin and bone
Was never seen, except her own:
Charm'd with his eyes, and chin, and snout,
Her pocket-glass drew silly out;
And grew enamour'd with her phiz,
As just the counterpart of his.
She darted many a private glance,
And freely made the first advance;
Was of her beauty grown so vain,
She doubted not to win the swain.

Nothing she thought could sooner gain him,
Than with her wit to entertain him.
She ask'd about her friends below;
This meagre fop, that batter'd beau:
Whether some late departed toasts
Had got gallants among the ghosts?
If Chloe were a sharper still
As great as ever at quadrille?
(The ladies there must needs be rooks;
For cards, we know, are Pluto's books!)
If Florimel had found her love,
For whom she hang'd herself above?
How oft' a week was kept a ball
By Proserpine at Pluto's hall?
She fancied those Elysian shades
The sweetest place for masquerades:
How pleasant, on the banks of Styx,
To troll it in a coach and six!

What pride a female heart inflames!
How endless are ambition's aims!
Cease, haughty nymph; the Fates decree
Death must not be a spouse for thee:
For, when by chance the meagre shade
Upon thy hand his finger laid,
Thy hand as dry and cold as lead,
His matrimonial spirit fled;
He felt about his heart a damp,
That quite extinguish'd Cupid's lamp:
Away the frighted spectre scuds,
And leaves my lady in the suds.

For the Anthology.

VERSION OF THE 8TH CHAPTER OF SOLOMON'S SONG.

OH that thou wert like him who drew
Life from the same maternal breast,
No crimson should my cheek imbue,
When I thy lips in secret prest.

Home I'd persuade thee to return,
With me domeſtick bliss to prove,
Where from my mother I would learn
To keep thee, all the lore of love.

Thy lip should rich delicious wine,
My own pomgranate vintage, taste;
On thy left hand my head recline,
And thy right arm enfold my waist.

When such a heaven of bliss we share,
Should sleep exhausted nature seize,
Maids of Jerusalem, forbear
To wake my love until he please.

What stranger from the wilderness
Comes leaning on her love? the maid
Whom once I rais'd with chaste caress
Beneath the citron's spreading shade.

Within that consecrated grove
Thy parent first embrac'd her child;
There first the pledge of virtuous love
Gaz'd on her mother's face and smil'd!

Set me a signet on thine arm,
And on thy heart my image lay,
The spell would drive, with potent charm,
The fiend of Jealousy away.

The cruel fiend, greedy as death,
No art can soothe, no flattery tame;
Whose eyes are burning coals, whose breath
A scorching, all devouring flame.

Love ever clear and constant burns,
No floods can quench his heavenly light;
No wealth corrupt him, for he spurns
The sordid miscreant from his sight.

Our little sister sweet and fair,
Her bosom like the infant rose,
Waits till the gentle vernal air
Swell the soft buds, and they unclose.

EPIGRAM.

CHLOE.

Chloe new-marry'd looks on men no more;
Why then it's plain for what she look'd before.

WALSH.

PARALLELS.

" How beautiful is night!

NOW came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad;
Silence accompanied; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests
Were slunk; all but the wakeful nightingale;
She all night long her amorous descant sung;
Silence was pleas'd; now glow'd the firmament
With living sapphires: Hesperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon
Rising in clouded majesty, at length
Apparent queen, unveiled her peerless light,
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.

MILTON.

····

As when the moon, refulgent lamp of night!
O'er heav'n's clear azure spreads her sacred light,
When not a breath disturbs the deep serene,
And not a cloud o'ercasts the solemn scene;
Around her throne the vivid planets roll,
And stars unnumber'd gild the glowing pole,
O'er the dark trees a yellower verdure shed,
And tip with silver ev'ry mountain's head;
Then shine the vales, the rocks in prospect rise,
A flood of glory bursts from all the skies:
The conscious swains, rejoicing in the sight,
Eye the blue vault, and bless the useful light.

POPE'S HOMER.

····

How beautiful is night!
A dewy freshness fills the silent air,
No mist obscures, no little cloud
Breaks the whole serene of heaven:
In full-orb'd glory the majestick moon
Rolls through the dark blue depths.
Beneath her steady ray
The desert circle spreads,
Like the round ocean girded with the sky.
How beautiful is night!

SOUTHEY.

ΓΝΩΘΙ ΣΕΑΥΤΟΝ.

By Dr. Johnson.

(Poſt Lexicon Anglicanum auctum et emendatum.)

LEXICON ad finem longo luctamine tandem
Scaliger ut duxit, tenuis pertæſus opellæ,
Vile indignatus ſtudium, nugaſque moleſtas,
Ingemit exoſus, ſcribendaque lexica mandat
Damnatis, pœnam pro pœnis omnibus unam.
Ille quidem recte, ſublimis, doctus et acer,
Quem decuit majora ſequi, majoribus aptum,
Qui veterum modo facta ducum, modo carmina vatum,
Geſſerat et quicquid virtus, ſapientia quicquid,
Dixerat, imperiique vices, cœlique meatus,
Ingentemque animo ſeclorum volveret orbem.
Fallimur exemplis; temere ſibi turba ſcholarum
Ima tuas credit permitti Scaliger iras.
Quiſque ſuum norit modulum; tibi prime, virorum
Ut ſtudiis ſperem, aut auſim par eſſe querelis,
Non mihi ſorte datum; lenti ſeu ſanguinis obſint
Frigora, ſeu nimium longo jacuiſſe veterno,
Sive mihi mentem dederit natura minorem.
Te ſterili functum cura, vocumque ſalebris
Tuto eluctatum ſpatiis ſapientia dia
Excipit æthereis, ars omnis plaudit amico,
Linguarumque omni terra diſcordia concors
Multiplici reducem circum ſonatore magiſtrum.
Me, penſi immunis cum jam mihi reddor, inertis
Deſidiæ ſors dura manet, graviorque labore
Triſtis et atra quies, et tardæ tædia vitæ.
Naſcuntur curis curæ, vexatque dolorum
Importuna cohors, vacuæ mala ſomnia mentis.
Nunc clamoſa juvant nocturnæ gaudia menſæ,
Nunc loca ſola placent; fruſtra te, Somne, recumbens
Alme voco, impatiens noctis metuenſque diei.
Omnia percurro trepidus, circum omnia luſtro,
Si qua uſquam pateat melioris ſemita vitæ,
Nec quid agam invenio, meditatus grandia, cogor
Notior ipſe mihi fieri, incultumque fateri
Pectus et ingenium vano ſe robore jactans.
Ingenium niſi materiem doctrina miniſtrat,
Ceſſat inops rerum, ut torpet, ſi marmoris abſit
Copia, Phidiaci fœcunda potentia cœli.
Quicquid agam, quocunque ferar, conatibus obſtat
Res anguſta domi, et macræ penuria mentis.
Non rationis opes animus, nunc parta recenſens
Conſpicit aggeſtas, et ſe miratur in illis,
Nec ſibi de gaza præſens quod poſtulat uſus
Summus adeſſe jubet celſa dominator ab arce;
Non operum ſerie ſeriem dum computat ævi,
Præteritis fruitur, lætos aut ſumit honores
Ipſe ſui judex, actæ bene munera vitæ;
Sed ſua regna videns, loca nocte ſilentia late
Horret, ubi vanæ ſpecies, umbræque fugaces,
Et rerum volitant raræ per inane figuræ.
Quid faciam? tenebriſne pigram damnare ſenectam
Reſtat? an accingar ſtudiis gravioribus audax?
Aut hoc, ſi nimium eſt, tandem nova lexica poſcam?

TRANSLATION.

From Murphy's Life of Johnſon.

KNOW YOURSELF.

(After reviſing and enlarging the Engliſh Lexicon, or Dictionary.)

WHEN Scaliger, whoſe years of labour paſt,
Beheld his Lexicon complete at laſt,
And weary of his taſk, with wond'ring eyes,
Saw from words pil'd on words a fabrick riſe,
He curs'd the induſtry, inertly ſtrong,
In creeping toil that could perſiſt ſo long,
And if, enrag'd he cried, Heav'n meant to ſhed
Its keeneſt vengeance on the guilty head,

The drudgery of words the damn'd would know,
Doom'd to write Lexicons in endleſs woe.*

Yes, you had cauſe, great Genius, to repent;
" You loſt good days that might be better ſpent;
You well might grudge the hours of ling'ring pain,
And view your learned labours with diſdain.
To you were giv'n the large expanded mind,
The flame of genius, and the taſte refin'd.
'Twas yours on eagle wings aloft to ſoar,
And amidſt rolling worlds the Great Firſt Cauſe explore;
To fix the æras of recorded time,
And live in ev'ry age, in ev'ry clime;
Record the chiefs, who propt their country's cauſe;
Who founded empires, and eſtabliſh'd laws;
To learn whate'er the ſage with virtue fraught,
Whate'er the muſe of moral wiſdom taught.
Theſe were your quarry; theſe to you were known,
And the world's ample volume was your own.

Yet warn'd by me, ye pigmy wits, beware,
Nor with immortal Scaliger compare.
For me, though his example ſtrike my view,
Oh! not for me his footſteps to purſue.
Whether firſt nature, unpropitious, cold,
This clay compounded in a ruder mould;
Or the ſlow current, loit'ring at my heart,
No gleam of wit or fancy can impart;
Whate'er the cauſe, from me no numbers flow,
No viſions warm me, and no raptures glow.

A mind like Scaliger's, ſuperiour ſtill,
No grief could conquer, no misfortune chill.
Though for the maze of words his native ſkies
He ſeem'd to quit, 'twas but again to riſe;
To mount once more to the bright ſource of day,
And view the wonders of th' ætherial way.
The love of fame his gen'rous boſom fir'd;
Each ſcience hail'd him, and each muſe inſpir'd.
For him the ſons of learning trim'd the bays,
And nations grew harmonious in his praiſe.

My taſk perform'd, and all my labours o'er,
For me what lot has fortune now in ſtore?
The liſtleſs will ſucceeds, that worſt diſeaſe,
The rack of indolence, the ſluggiſh eaſe.
Care grows on care, and o'er my aching brain
Black melancholy pours her morbid train.
No kind relief, no lenitive at hand,
I ſeek at midnight clubs, the ſocial band;
But midnight clubs, where wit with noiſe conſpires,
Where Comus revels, and where wine inſpires,
Delight no more: I ſeek my lonely bed,
And call on ſleep to ſoothe my languid head.
But ſleep from theſe ſad lids flies far away;
I mourn all night, and dread the coming day.
Exhauſted, tir'd, I throw my eyes around,
To find ſome vacant ſpot on claſſick ground;
And ſoon, vain hope! I form a grand deſign;
Languor ſucceeds, and all my pow'rs decline.
If ſcience open not her richeſt vein,
Without materials all our toil is vain.
A form to rugged ſtone when Phidias gives,
Beneath his touch a new creation lives.
Remove his marble, and his genius dies;
With nature then no breathing ſtatue vies.

Whate'er I plan, I feel my pow'rs confin'd
By fortune's frown and penury of mind.
I boaſt no knowledge glean'd with toil and ſtrife,
That bright reward of a well-acted life.
I view myſelf, while reaſon's feeble light
Shoots a pale glimmer through the gloom of night,
While paſſions, error, phantoms of the brain,
And vain opinions fill the dark domain;
A dreary void, where fears with grief combin'd
Waſte all within, and deſolate the mind.

What then remains? Muſt I in ſlow decline
To mute inglorious eaſe old age reſign?
Or, bold ambition kindling in my breaſt,
Attempt ſome arduous taſk? Or, were it beſt
Brooding o'er Lexicons to paſs the day,
And in that labour drudge my life away?

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* See Scaliger's epigram on the ſame ſubject, communicated, without doubt, by Dr. Johnſon, Gent. Mag. 1748, p. 8.

For the Anthology.

WRITTEN AT SUNSET.

WET with the tears, which evening weeps,
The closing flower conceals her breast,
Secure the vernal warbler sleeps,
The voice of love and joy supprest.

Ere long shall night assume her sway,
Reposing nature on her arm
Blot the last purple flush of day,
Dissolve the twilight's lingering charm.

And thus the transient joys of life
Fade on Attention's sober eye,
Till vext no more with various strife
‡Man learns to slumber or to die.

H*******, April, 1806.

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‡ And learn with equal ease, to sleep or die.
Mason.

SONG.

DORINDA's sparkling wit and eyes,
United, cast too fierce a light,
Which blazes high, but quickly dies,
Pains not the heart, but hurts the sight.

Love is a calmer, gentler joy,
Smooth are his looks, and soft his pace;
Her Cupid is a black-guard boy,
That runs his link full in your face.

DORSET.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For *APRIL*, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 1.

[Concluded.]

Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Vol. I. 1805. 4to. pp. 564.

PART II. PHYSICAL PAPERS.

I. Observations upon an hypothesis for solving the phenomena of light, with incidental observations, tending to shew the heterogeneousness of light, and of the electrick fluid, by their intermixture, or union, with each other. By James Bowdoin, Esquire, President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

The celebrated Dr. Franklin observed, that he was much in the dark about light. And it must be acknowledged, that, notwithstanding the great progress we have made in opticks, many difficulties still remain relative to the nature of light, or the manner in which vision is produced. It is well known, that modern philosophers have proposed two hypotheses for the purpose of explaining this point. In one, adopted by Huygens, Euler, and some others, an extremely subtile, elastick fluid is supposed to penetrate all bodies, and to fill all space; and vibrations, being excited in it by the action of luminous bodies, are propagated to the eye, and produce in that organ the sensation of vision in the same manner, as pulsations of air produce in the organ of hearing the sensation of sound. According to the other hypothesis, maintained by Sir Isaac Newton and others, light consists of particles of matter, extremely minute, which being projected or thrown off from luminous bodies in every direction by a repulsive force, and reflected by opaque bodies, produce the sensation of vision by impulse on the eye.

The hypothesis, on which the author of this Memoir remarks, is contained in some queries, proposed by Dr Franklin, and is *in substance* the same as the former of the two preceding; to which the observations may be considered as objections, or arguments in favor of the other.

In one part of the reasoning in form of queries relative to the production of light in various instances by motion, on supposition that the hypothesis of vibration is true, more seems to be assumed than is granted in the hypothesis. It does not appear to be inferable from Dr. Franklin's statement, nor from any other, that we recollect to have seen, that *every kind* and *degree* of motion in the elastick fluid is supposed or admitted to be productive of the sensation of vision; nor does this seem to be a necessary consequence. In the theory of sound, though the vibratory agency of the air is clearly ascertained, yet it is not supposed that *every kind* and *degree* of motion in the air produces the sensation of sound.

The author's ideas respecting the heterogeneousness of light and of the electrick fluid may be well learned from the following extract, it being noted, that he uses fire in it as synonimous with light.

"Electricity and fire differ in many respects, and in some they agree; as hath been shewn in Dr. *Franklin's* letters on electricity. So far as they agree in their effects, their nature may be presumed to be alike: or rather, from that agreement and similitude of effects, I think it may be inferred, that they are mixt with, and generally do accompany each other; and that each produces its own effect at the time of their joint operation. The effects of electricity, similar to those of fire, being produced by the fire mixt with it; and the effects of fire, resembling those of electricity, being produced by the electricity mixt with that: the compound taking its name from the predominant principle."

Is it not more probable that *one* fluid, operating in different modes and circumstances, produces those different effects?

II. Observations on light, and the waste of matter in the sun and fixt stars, occasioned by the constant efflux of light from them; with a conjecture, proposed by way of query, and suggesting a mean, by which their several systems might be preserved from the disorder and final ruin, to which they seem liable by that waste of matter, and by the law of gravitation. By James Bowdoin, Esquire, President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Dr. Franklin had made some objections to the Newtonian doctrine of light on the ground, that there most consequently be a momentum or force in the particles of light, and a waste in the matter of the sun, which do not accord with experience and observation. Mr. Bowdoin endeavours to remove these objections. Accordingly the "Observations on Light" in the former part are calculated to show, that the inference relative to the motion or momentum of light is not just, and of course the objection, raised on it, unfounded. In the other part, after some good observations on the waste of matter in the sun by emission of light, the hypothesis is introduced, which is announced with so much modesty and caution in the title. The author, apparently well apprized of the difficulty of supporting it with evidence, merely proposes it as a query, or subject of consideration. That wonderful phenomenon, the ring of Saturn, which appears to the planet like a vast, surrounding, luminous arch, suggested the idea of conjecturing that a hollow sphere or orb might encompass the several systems, which compose the visible heavens. This surrounding orb is supposed to be fitted by its structure, and the properties of gravity, repulsion of light, &c. with which it is furnished to stop the rays of light, reflect them to the source, whence they emanated, and thus prevent loss or waste of any matter within it, and preserve the magnitude of the sun and stars; and also to serve as a counterbalance to the mutual gravities of the systems and bodies, inclosed by it, thus contributing to the preservation of their relative distances, and the prolongation of their regular motions.

The following remark shows, that the author was not insensible to the weight of objections. "To this hypothesis objections may be made, and such as might prove it to be, like many an one which has preceded it, a mere philosophical reverie."

III. Observations tending to prove, by phenomena and scripture, the existence of an orb, which surrounds the whole visible, material system; and which may be necessary to preserve it from the ruin, to which, without such a counterbalance, it seems liable by that universal principle in matter, gravitation. By James Bowdoin, Esq. President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

In this Memoir is adduced the evidence, on which the author depends to support his hypothesis of an all-surrounding orb.

"The evidence is—phenomena and scripture.

"The phenomena are—the luminous girdle in the blue expanse, called the Milky Way; other luminous appearances in it; and the expanse itself."

With respect to the Milky Way, objection is made to the opinion, that its appearance is occasioned by the blended light of stars; and it is observed, "the phenomenon strikes us, as it may be supposed, such a luminous girdle would strike, if its light were reflected from the concave surface of a far distant orb; to which, on the hypothesis assumed, it had been propelled from the numerous systems which the orb enfolds."

Quotations are given from Ferguson and Smith, containing some observations on the milky way, and descriptions of some whitish spots or luminous appearances in the heavens. And it is observed, "From these phenomena it seems not improbable, that the Milky Way, and those lucid spots, are parts of a concave body or orb, of the same nature with some of the other heavenly bodies; and whose light transmitted to us, exhibits those phenomena, according to the laws and circumstances, which regulate it."

Sir Isaac Newton's explanation of "the blue concave expanse, which surrounds, and appears to limit visible nature," is considered as unsatisfactory. The opinion relatively to this phenomenon, entertained by this author, and his ground for supporting it, may be seen in the following extract.

"Nature is simple and uniform in its operations. From the same cause follow like effects; and these indicate the same cause. Bodies of every kind, through the medium of light, produce their respective phenomena, and these demonstrate the reality of those bodies.

"From these principles we infer the reality of these terrestrial bodies, which, by reason of their situation and distance, can only be the objects of sight: and from the same principles we also infer the reality of the heavenly bodies, the planets, and fixed stars. If this last inference be just, is it not equally just to infer, from the same principles, the reality of the blue circumambient expanse: that is, that it is a real concave body, encompassing all visible nature?"

After the statement of such evidence in favour of an orb surrounding the visible universe, as seems to him to be deducible from natural phenomena, farther light is sought in the sacred scriptures. His own words express his sentiments on the propriety of recurring to this source of information.

"In regard to the subject in hand, there seems to be a happy coincidence between phenomena and scripture; and therefore in further evidence of such an orb, and in evidence of several other orbs similar, and concentrick to it, we may recur to scripture: several passages of which appear applicable to that purpose.

"It seldom happens that natural philosophy is made to borrow assistance from thence: but though scripture may not be intended to instruct us in the philosophy of material nature, it may nevertheless give, and be intended to give, some hints of its constitution, or general system."

The passage, first adduced as evidence of the author's hypothesis, is, he observes, "a remarkable one, and may serve in some measure to elucidate the rest." "*It is God that builded his stories in the heavens.*"*

From the preceding extracts, some idea may be formed of the hypothesis of an all-surrounding orb, the ground on which it rests, and the author's view of certain phœnomena. This hypothesis is proposed for consideration in a manner well calculated to engage the attention, and secure the candour of the reader. We have been entertained in the perusal, though our ideas do not coincide with the author's in all his reasonings and conclusions. By enlarging the powers of telescopes and extending our views into the celestial regions, we find new evidence in favour of the opinion, that the lucid appearance of the milky way and some other parts of the etherial expanse, arises from the blended light of stars, and new reason to doubt the reality of a solid surrounding orb. Observation and theory render it probable, that sufficient provision is made for preserving the harmony of the motions in the various systems, which compose the universe, without the supposed external, enclosing counterbalance. But if we cannot discover sufficient reason to admit this supposition as a constituent part of the fabrick of science, we think it merits a respectable place in her collection of curious hypotheses, formed by eminent men.

IV. An account of a very uncommon darkness in the states of New-England, May 19, 1780. *By Samuel Williams, A. M. Hollis Professor of Mathematicks and Philosophy in the University at Cambridge.*

The extraordinary darkness of the 19th of May, 1780, cannot be easily forgotten by those who observed it. We are happy to see an account of that phœnomenon preserved, which we think will be read with no small interest by the lovers of natural knowledge. The facts, which Dr. Williams had been able to collect, are related with clearness and the general principles of the explanation appear to us to be satisfactory.

According to this statement, the unusual darkness began between 10 and 11 o'clock in the morning, and continued till midnight;—from the accounts received the exact boundaries of it could not be determined, but it seemed to have extended through the New-England states.. There was some variety in the appearances, the degree of darkness, and probably in the duration at different places;—"in most parts of the country people were unable to read common print; determine the time of day by their clocks or watches; dine, or manage their domestick business without the light of candles;" the colour of the clouds appeared to be a mixture of faint red, yellow and brown, and most other objects appeared to be tinged with yellow; thunder was heard in the morning, and rain fell in small showers, which appeared to be thick, dark, and sooty, and on the surface of it, when received in vessels, as well as on that of rivers, &c. a light scum was observed, which on examination was found to be the black ashes of burnt leaves; in some places the vapours seemed to be ascending; "in most descending; and in all very near to the surface of the earth;" "the *appearance* and *effects* were such as tended to make the prospect extremely dull and gloomy; candles were lighted up in the houses; the birds having sung their evening songs, disappeared and became silent; the fowls retired to roost; the cocks were crowing all around as at break of day; objects could not be distinguished but at a very little distance, and every thing bore the appearance and gloom of night."

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* Amos ix. 6.

A general view of the cause of this wonderful darkness is exhibited in the following extract.

"It is well known that in this part of America, it is customary to make large fires in the woods, for the purpose of clearing the lands in the new settlements. This was the case this spring, in a much greater degree than is common. In the county of York, in the western parts of the state of New-Hampshire, in the western parts of this state, and in Vermont, uncommonly large and extensive fires had been kept up. The people in the new towns had been employed in clearing up their lands in this way for two or three weeks before; and some large and extensive fires had raged in the woods for several days before they could be extinguished. In addition therefore, to what arises from evaporation, and those exhalations which are constant and natural, a much larger quantity of vapour arose from those large and numerous fires which extended all around our frontiers. As the weather had been clear, the air heavy, and the winds small and variable for several days; the vapours instead of dispersing, must have been rising and constantly collecting in the air, until the atmosphere became highly charged with an uncommon quantity of them, floating near the surface of the earth."

To this account is annexed some information, principally taken from the English Philosophical Transactions, respecting instances of extraordinary darkness, which in former times had been observed in America.

V. *An account of the effects of lightning on two houses in the city of Philadelphia. By the Hon. Arthur Lee, Esq. F. A. A.*

The lightning, which produced the effects here described, happened in the summer of 1781. One of the houses was unprotected by a conductor; and the copper point of the conductor of the other appeared, on examination, to have been melted, at some preceding time, into a form, resembling that of a button. The lower end of this conductor was about two feet below the surface of the ground. In each case the fluid appeared to have passed through a considerable extent of the building by one or more bell-wires, which, though melted in some parts, answered the purpose of conducting the charge; the falling however of the fused metal on the floor occasioned the burning of holes in it. The course and effects of the lightning in one of the houses is particularly marked by a figure.

In some remarks, suggested by

the facts he had related, Mr. Lee justly observes, that bell-wires in a house "ought always to be disposed with a view to the possibility of their becoming conductors." And, "that the points of conductors should be examined from time to time."

VI. *An account of the effects of lightning on a large rock in Gloucester. By the Reverend Eli Forbes.*

The time, when lightning produced the effects here described, was the 18th of March, 1782. The content of the rock above the ground, on which the discharge was made near the top, is almost ten feet. The lightning, having broken off about 20 pounds of the rock, and beside cracked it in several directions to a small extent, was divided into three parts, which passed off in different directions, each producing effects, that were very striking. Dr. Forbes appears to have examined these effects with close attention, and to have described them with great accuracy. He has illustrated them by a figure. They were indeed extraordinary.

It is very much to be wished, that whenever lightning strikes an object on the earth, some person, who lives near it, would examine the visible traces, and communicate all the facts, which he can ascertain, to the Academy or some other society, that, if valuable, they may become publick, and may be applied, as far as ther nature will admit, to the purpose of improving our knowledge on this highly important subject.

VII. *An account of a very curious appearance of the electrical fluid, produced by raising an electrical kite in the time of a thunder-shower. By Loammi Baldwin, Esq. F. A. A.*

In this experiment, performed in the summer of 1771, an electrical kite was elevated to the height of some tall trees, or perhaps somewhat above them, at a time, when the upper edge of a highly charged cloud, rising from the north-west, had reached the altitude of 55° or 60°. Col. Baldwin was soon surrounded with the appearance of a fiery atmosphere, or bright flame of fire, with some faint flashes, visible to himself and other persons at a small distance. This electrical phenomenon continued to increase and extend itself till, the cloud having nearly obscured the heavens about the zenith, the kite was drawn down. The experimenter however was subjected to no inconvenience but surprise, and a degree of debility, which, he thinks, that surprise might possibly have occasioned.

VIII. *Observations and conjectures on the earthquakes of New-England. By Professor Williams, F. A. A.*

The design in writing this treatise and the plan of it are exhibited in the following extract, which is the first paragraph of it.

"In looking over some of the histories of New-England, I observed, that the religious turn of mind, which distinguished the first planters of New-England, had led them to take notice of all the earthquakes which happened in the country after their arrival. Several of them seemed to be pretty well described; and in some of their phenomena there seemed to be an agreement. As several of these accounts were contained in writings but little known, I thought it might be of some service to philosophy, if a particular account of them could be collected. This is what I have attempted in the following treatise. In the *first part* of it I have set down the most particular accounts I could find of their phenomena. The *second* contains observations and remarks upon their agreement and operations. In the *third*, conjectures are proposed as to their causes: and in the *fourth*, some general reflections are added as to their nature, use, and effects."

In the first part, Dr. Williams gives a narrative of the principal facts relative to the earthquakes in New-England, from 1638, when the first happened, which was observed by our ancestors, after their landing at Plymouth, to 1783 inclusive. Five of these were much greater than the rest; namely the earthquakes of 1638, 1658, 1663, 1727, and 1755; the last of which was the greatest.

In the observations and remarks it is said, that all the earthquakes which have happened in this country, are of the same kind, having an *undulatory* motion; that their general *course* is nearly from the north-west to the south-east; that their *origin* was probably at a considerable distance from New-England in a north-western direction; that "to the south-west, they have several times reached as far as *Maryland;* but never so far as *Virginia* or *Carolina;* to the north-east, they have been bounded by *Nova-Scotia;* having never been felt much further than *Halifax;* from the unknown lands, at the north-west, they have gone off south-east into the *Atlantic:* their extent this way, being greater than we are able to trace on either point of the compass,"—that as far as can be gathered from the accounts, it seems probable, that most of the great shocks have reached to much the same places: the small ones, indeed, have not had such an extent; being felt only in different provinces and towns,"—that there are no facts, by which the *velocity* of these earthquakes can be determined,—that the intervals of time between their occurrences are very unequal and irregular, and that earthquakes seem to have no connection with any thing that falls under our observation.

With respect to the causes of the earthquakes of New-England, it is inferred from the facts before stated, that they "have been produced by *something which has moved along under the surface of the earth.*" "What thus moved under, and hove up the surface of the earth, was probably a *strong elastick vapour,*"—"a fluid of the same nature as that which is now called *inflammable air.*"

In the opinion of this author "the *contents* of the earth will account for the *origin*, and the *structure* of it will account for the *motion* and *direction* of a subterraneous vapour."

Under the head of general reflections on earthquakes, it is observed, "if we are right in our conjectures on the causes of earthquakes, we may conclude, that the globe always has been, and will be subject to such concussions,"—that, "notwithstanding all their terrible effects, earthquakes seem to be a necessary consequence of such laws of nature, and powers in matter, as are, upon the whole, greatly beneficial to the globe,"—that "these extensive and powerful agitations tend to weaken the attraction, loosen the parts, and open the pores of the earth; and thus to fit and prepare it for the purposes of vegetation, and for the various kinds of produce that are necessary for the support of animal life,"—that "we have no way to form any rational conclusions as to the time when an earthquake will happen, from any inferences founded on the knowledge of the nature and operations of their causes; nor can we receive much, if any, help from any *preceding signs*,"—that "it must," however, "be supposed, that earthquakes (like all other events that depend on natural causes) are subject to certain and determined laws and rules, which are in themselves constant, regular, and harmonious,—whether these laws, or this regularity, be known to us or not;"—that "it was no doubt with a view *ultimately* to moral *purposes*, that the laws of nature were first established: and nothing can be better adapted than many of their operations, to awaken and direct the attention of mankind to the supreme governour of the world,"—and that "of his favour mortals may be sure, so long as they maintain a steady regard to the rules of virtue."

We could with pleasure make much larger extracts from this very valuable Memoir, did we not fear, that the present article would then be too long. Earthquakes make most awful impressions on the mind, and excite an ardent desire to be particularly acquainted with the nature and effects of those of our own country, to which we are exposed. We have perused the account before us with much satisfaction. It contains many important facts, many ingenious conjectures, many excellent reflections.

IX. An account of West-River Mountain, and the appearance of there having been a volcano in it. By Daniel Jones, Esq.

West-river mountain is in the state of New-Hampshire, on the eastern bank of Connecticut river, opposite to the mouth of West-river. Mr. Jones is of opinion, that there has been an eruption on the south side of this mountain about eighty yards from the top. Some people in the vicinity, hoping to find gold, have there dug to the depth of seventy or eighty feet. "The external parts of the hole are entirely rock, and in many places much burnt and softened. There are small holes in various places of the rock, where they dig, like the arch of an oven, and the rock seems to be dissolved by heat; the cinders and melted dross adhere to it, and hang down in drops like small icicles, something resembling in colour the cinders of a furnace, or black glass, and it is so fastened to the rock, that it appears as if it was originally part of the same." . . . "At the mouth of the hole, there was blown out melted dross, which stuck to the rocks; and in the hole were found various pieces of stone, which appeared to be dissolved by fire, and the sides of the rock blackened by fire; so that this hole must have been filled up since the eruption took place."

Such are the principal appearances, observed on the mountain, which seemed to indicate that there had been volcanick eruptions. And great quantities of stone, fallen or thrown from the mountain, are thought to furnish evidence of explosions or violent agitations.

Beside the evidence, that arises from the present appearance, there was also information from some old, credible people, who had lived opposite to the mountain, that there had been frequent explosions in it, and emissions of fire and smoke. The last explosion, that the author recollects, happened, as he observes, about five or six years before the date of this account, Nov. 2, 1783. The noise resembled that of an earthquake, and the earth trembled considerably where he was, at a distance of four or five miles.

X. *An account of eruptions, and the present appearance in West-River Mountain. By Mr. Caleb Alexander.*

Mr. Alexander observed appearances on this mountain similar to those, described by Mr. Jones in the last Memoir. He is however of opinion, that there have been eruptions of fire at two places.

According to information, that had been received, explosions had been heard as loud as the report of a cannon ;....at other times they had been heard at the distance of fourteen or fifteen miles ;...that violent eruptions of fire had been observed several times, when the flame ascended to a great height in the air.

ART. 17.

A view of South Carolina, as respects her natural and civil concerns. By John Drayton. 1802. Charleston, W. P. Young. *8vo.* 1 *vol. pp.* 252.

Works of this nature have been so multiplied in Europe, from the importance which every one believes his own city and district to possess, and are produced with so little labour, that it is necessary to guard against the introduction of this evil into our own country. A few tables of probable population, of weather, imports and exports, with descriptions of the publick buildings,have swollen the account of a commercial town into a huge quarto ; and as the authors of such works convey so much information to the publick, they think themselves licensed to neglect every ornament ; though even novels, at present deemed the meanest articles in the shop of literature, are supposed to be adorned with the beauties of language, and variety of incidents. Statisticks, as they afford the only means of judging correctly of the prosperity of a country, of its rise and decline, are extremely useful ; and though they will not admit all the beauties of imagery, do not refuse all ornament. A work of this kind should contain much new information ; and facts should be so well authenticated as to support the conclusions, that are drawn from them. We hope our readers will be able to judge from the following account, how far Mr. Drayton has succeeded in these points.

We shall forbear to speak of the inelegance, if not impropriety of the title ; and shall only observe, that it is sufficiently general to include every thing that can be said of South-Carolina. Our author divides his work into three chapters, the first of which contains the geography and natural history of South-Carolina, which is again subdivided into " situation, and by what authority ; discovery, and name ; face of the country ; mountains ; climate ; diseases ; rivers, lakes, and water courses ; minerals, springs, cascades, and natural curiosities ; productions vegetable and animal." Of these our author treats in their order, and prefixes to the whole a short introduction, turgid, obscure, and full of forced epithets. In speaking of the face of the country, he divides S. Carolina into three divisions; the upper, above the falls of the rivers, contains 9450 square miles. The middle and lower, divided from each other by the sand hills, contain 14510. The country rises gradually from the sea for eighty miles, and is an extensive plain, except where intersected by water, producing nothing but pines, and thence denominated pine barren. These pine barrens are devoid of underwood, being frequently burnt for the purpose of producing early spring pasturage. Upon the numerous creeks and rivers, which divide this plain, are rich and fertile savannahs, almost the only lands cultivated in the lower division. The best rice plantations are made on these marshes, where the tide flows, but above where the salt water rises. They require no manure, and are inexhaustible. He neglects however to inform us, that some gentlemen have converted their salt marshes into rice plantations, by raising dykes for the exclusion of the salt water, and bringing in a trough or canal fresh water from the river above. After a few years, these are found equally productive with the fresh marshes.

The middle country resembles the lower, the banks of the rivers being alone profitable to cultivate.

The upper country is diversified like the northern states into hill and dale; but its mountains seem to raise our author from the humble style, he had before used. He carries us to the top of the table mountain, and after stating its height at 3168 feet, the highest mountain in the state; and showing us on one side the lover's leap 300 feet perpendicular, he mentions the mountains, that may thence be seen in the various directions, and adds, "To the east and south-east the eye may range without any other control, than what the unerring laws of nature have ordained in the curvature of the globe. Thirty farms or more are hence distinguished by the naked eye at any one view; the mountains wind along in elevated majesty, and roaring cataracts, leaping from rock to rock, hasten down their sides to run with more gentle streams along the vales below." When "elevated far above the sphere of human life," as he afterwards expresses himself, "by the clouds, which sweep below him," he discovers thirty farms or more, we can only compare him to the hawk, who, striving to soar above the towering eagle, is drawn from his lofty flight to seize some little bird below. The rest of his description is extremely puerile. He represents the climate of the upper country as fine and wholesome; but says that, from the great quantities of stagnant waters in the lower parts of the state producing many reptiles and insects, "it is not surprising that the hot months should be chequered with sickness." We regret that neither here, nor under the head of diseases, he has given us a table of births and deaths, for his account is much too general to remove the common impression, that the climate is extremely unfriendly to the constitution of the whites. The table of diseases may give an idea of the destroying angel's form; but not of the exertions of his powers. After describing the dreadful whirlwinds and hail storms that are experienced in this state, he attempts to prove, that they owe their origin to the situation of South Carolina in the temperate zone, near the torrid. He should first, however, have proved to us, that these dreadful scourges were not felt in any other situation; and then we might be disposed to listen to his argument. Nor would he have thought the climate of that state peculiarly variable, because the thermometer has varied 83° in one season; if he had known that it had been in Maine 30° below the cypher in winter, and at near an 100° above it in summer. He gives an opinion, that the climate ameliorates; but, sensible that he does not produce sufficient authority to support the opinion, he seems cautious in risking it. His tables of weather are only of the extremes of heat and cold, for ten years from 1750, and eight years from 1791, and of rain for 7 years from 1795. By which it appears, that in the above years, the thermometer was but once above 96°, and seldom below 22° above the cypher; and that the rain in the above years varied from 42,9 to 75,4 inches. Our author passes from climate and diseases to rivers, &c.; but he treats with no more respect, the broad and extensive Savannah and Santee, than he does the minor streams of Ashley and Edisto. The tides extend up the rivers about 80 miles; but in the Santee not more than 15. On the coast they rise from 6 to 10 feet, but are much influenced by the wind. Nothing but the desire of mentioning every thing, could have induced our author to speak of lakes; a pond of less than a mile in circumference being the only thing resembling them in the state. Fifteen pages are employed upon fossils, minerals, &c., when as many lines would have decribed the whole. He speaks at length of some mammoth bones deposited in the Charleston museum, and upon the authority of Mr. Jefferson decides them to be similar to those found in Siberia, and then, with much ingenuity, conjures up, first the theory of the zones having exchanged places from the moving of the ecliptick; then Mr. Buffon's theory of the earth's having at first been fluid from heat, and having, in the true spirit of quixotism, combatted these theories to his own satisfaction, he at length discovers that they only "spring from the brain of a fertile imagination." Not content with this victory, he speaks of the theories of other naturalists, and of the ice islands of St. Pierre, loaded with bears and elephants; but having already exhausted his own ingenuity, he leaves us in doubt, to overturn these theories ourselves, if we are so disposed. Mill, building, and lime stones, ochres, asbestos, and slate are found in the upper parts of the state; and he wishes that we should think, that, besides iron and lead, they possess gold and silver, yet concealed in the earth. His botanical catalogue is full, though he himself tells us, it is not complete; but his account of animals is only a short list of names.

Our author divides his second chapter into political and rural economy, which he subdivides into "population, military force, tenures, value of estates and buildings, agriculture, manufactures, inland navigation, roads, and commerce." Under the head of population he gives a long and uninteresting account of the Indians, their wars, &c.; and with regard to the early white and negro population the only facts established are, that white population decreased till 1734, that in 1765 there were 40,000 whites, and 90,000 blacks, and that in 1800 there were 196,255 whites, 149,336 blacks in South-Carolina. Since however Mr. D. wrote, the prohibition against the importation of slaves has been taken off; and in the years 1804 and 1805 there were 13,000 negroes imported into Carolina. He states the effective militia at 35,785, of which number 1743 are cavalry, regularly armed, trained, and uniformed. Lands are holden originally by grant from the state, and now conveyed by simple deed. Their value must of course vary very greatly in this state. Tide swamp, the best land for rice, is worth, if cultivated, from $70 to $90 per acre. The income of the planter is still more unequal, some possessing $80,000 and others only $40 per annum. Our author then passes to agriculture, a subject which he seems to understand much better, than any other in his book; and though what he says upon it might have been comprised in one third the space it now occupies, much information respecting the culture of rice and cotton, the staple articles of South-Carolina, may be obtained by those unacquainted with the Southern states. A table is added to show the different modes of planting rice in South-Carolina, Spain, Egypt, Sumatra, and China. He is particular in describing the machines for preparing those articles for market; but does not give sufficient praise to the raw gin for cotton, and water mill for rice lately invented; probably because they are as yet used but by few persons. To the reasons, which he gives why indigo is less cultivated now than formerly, he might have added, that its preparation is extremely unwholesome, even to the negroes. Nor does he inform us, that oil is contained in the cotton seed, and that, tho' at present thrown away, yet by experiment it has yielded a gallon of oil to a bushel of seed. At the close of the article upon agriculture, he speaks of slavery; and though our feelings revolt at the attempt to justify slavery, yet we must have the candour to allow, that he has represented the condition of the slaves in South-Carolina without prejudice. An abhorrence of slavery has led us to depict the wretched negro, groaning under the task of an inhuman overseer, but we shall subjoin his account of them, which we believe to be correct. "They are worked by certain tasks, which are not unreasonable, and when they are diligent in performing them, they have some hours of the day to themselves. Hence they are encouraged to plant for their own emolument, raise poultry for their own use, or for sale; and are protected in the property which they thus acquire. With good masters they are happy and contented, and instances are known, where they have declined an offered freedom. It is prohibited by law to work them more than certain hours in the day, during different portions of the year; and their owners are liable to a penalty, if they do not feed them in a suitable manner. Should they treat them cruelly they are amenable to the laws." He might have added, that the fear of becoming infamous, a much more powerful motive than any positive law, obliges the gentlemen of Carolina to whom the greatest part of the slaves belong, to treat them with humanity. He is correct in saying, that, without negroes, part of South-Carolina must still have remained deep swamps and dreary forests. The manufactures of South-Carolina deserve not the little that our author says of them. Of the canals he mentions the Catawba and Santee have alone been commenced, and the latter is the only one yet finished. The Santee canal was begun in 1792, and finished in 1800, at an expense of about 150,000l. sterling ; and in the spring of 1804 there had been no dividend ; but a hope was entertained, that the following year they should divide 1 per cent. Both these canals received encouragement from the legislature. No one who has ever travelled in South Carolina can believe our author's account of the roads against the evidence of his senses, which pronounce them infamous. Nor under the present existing laws can they possibly be better ; but the traveller will join with him in hoping, that the day will come when bridges shall be more frequent, than they are at present ; and that the spirit of the people will allow tolls to be imposed. Under the article of commerce he gives a great number of tables of imports and exports at different periods. His third and last chapter is divided into "Histories ; government and laws ; revenue ; civil divisions ; cities and towns ; religion ; charitable societies ; literature ; modes of living ; character and diversions." His first article is a list of the different accounts of South-Carolina, that have ever been published. From the constitution he passes to the revenue, which he represents as flourishing. It is derived principally from direct taxes, and from the interest of a paper medium loan, and of the debt due from the United States. His account of Charleston is long, but uninteresting. Georgetown and Beaufort are mere villages, and the other towns he mentions have not a collection of a dozen houses. From religion, of which he says only a few words, he passes to charitable societies, of which the South-Carolina for the support of the families and the education of the children of unfortunate deceased members, and the orphan house, are the most important. The article of literature should have been entitled education, for under it he speaks of nothing but schools and colleges, which are not in a flourishing state. The South-Carolina college at Columbia was liberally endowed in 1801 ; and the question will soon be determined, whether the mind is capable of close application to study in that climate ; or whether, equally enervated with the body, it cannot there be trained to exertion. In delineating the character of the Carolinian, our author has wholly failed. In no state in the union are the manners of the different classes so various ; but in Mr. D.'s description we perceive not the marked distinction between the gentleman, educated in Europe, who to polished manners unites an hospitality unknown in the old world ; and the white savage of the borders, who to his own cunning has added the fierceness and cruelty of his neighbour, the sable aboriginal. Nor do we see a middle class with the want of feeling of the lower orders, and the pride of the upper ; or the young men of Charleston immerged in dissipation, and instead of imitating the urbane manners, and improving by the conversation of their fathers, wasting their time in foolish revels and boyish mischief.

We have examined this work in the order of its arrangement, and must conclude, that, considering the opportunities, which our author had for years of collecting materials, that he has afforded us very little information. He seems impressed with the idea, that it was necessary to write on every subject connected with South-Carolina, and that all were of equal importance. But if we should grant for the moment that his information was worth publishing, we would confine him to those subjects to which he seems competent, and to those tables which may serve hereafter as useful documents. Instead of throwing light upon his subject, he frequently renders it obscure by attempting to show his learning. His language is sometimes incorrect. *Be* is constantly used for *are*, and substantives receive a gender, when they are not meant to be personified. His style is sometimes obscure, and frequently turgid, particularly when he aims at the sublime. We shall conclude our review with a quotation from his description of the Catawba falls. "They are situated a little above Rocky Mount; and the approach to them is over hills which line the sides of the river. On either side the rocks are piled up in a wall of many feet high, and hills, rising above them in sharp conical summits, nod over the rupture below. Now the Catawba is arrested in its course, and from a width of one hundred and eighty yards, this river is forced by the hills and rocks on either side to shoot down the gulph in a channel of only ninety-five yards wide. Collecting its waters, impetuous and noisy, it thunders down the falls; tumbling over massy rocks, and foaming from shore to shore; wheeling its large whirlpools, and glancing from rock to rock with maddening fury. Nor ceasing its troubled waves, until it has overleaped twenty falls in the distance of two and an half miles, and has precipitated from its height, a depth of ninety feet. Here, below Rocky Mount, it begins to subside; and spreads over a channel three hundred and eighteen yards wide; but is not composed. For miles below, rocks are scattered in its way; at times irritating its waters, and provoking the rapidity of its stream. So a proud and haughty disposition cannot bear control; but rushes onward with unabating violence, scorning all opposition which is surmountable, repossessing its tranquillity by slow degrees; and becoming again incensed with whatever rises in its way."

ART. 18.

An account of the malignant fever, which prevailed in the city of New-York, during the autumn of 1805. *Containing,* 1. *The proceedings of the board of health to prevent the introduction of malignant fever.* 2. *The rise, progress, and decline of the late epidemick.* 3. *An account of the Marine and Bellevue hospitals, with the number of patients received, and deaths which have occurred, at each of these establishments, during the sickly season.* 4. *Record of deaths, &c. &c.* 5. *Opinion of several eminent physicians, respecting the cause of malignant fever, in several different parts of the United States.* 6. *The situation of the convicts in the state-prison, with respect to health during the last summer.* 7. *Desultory observations and reflections.* 8. *The various modes of cure adopted in the malignant fever. By James Hardie.* 8*vo. pp.* 196. New-York, Southwick & Hardcastle. 1805.

IT is well known that a diversity of opinion has prevailed among physicians respecting the origin, nature, and treatment of Yellow Fever. The question has been agitated in a manner not the most calm and dispassionate, among gentlemen of the faculty; at the same time, many of their fellow citizens have chosen their sides, and their co-operation has not tended to diminish the zeal and animosity, with which the controversy has been supported. It has thus been rendered unpleasant for those who sought truth only to canvas the subject.

From one party we are told, that the disease has been owing to the filth of our cities, and to the nauseous exhalations from our docks; and, in some instances, they have even pointed to the particular heaps of dirt, in which the poison has been generated. They seem almost to have seen the miasmata, with so much familiarity do they talk of them.

The other party consider all this as an unjust charge of the evil to a country too new and pure, and unadulterated, and *peaceable*, to be the mother of a disease so strongly marked, and of which the character is so malignant. They consider the reputation of the country, and, in many instances, of the particular city in which they reside, as injured by the suggestion, that this disease is of domestick origin; and these considerations do not make them listen with the more patience to the statements and arguments of their adversaries.

As facts have been stated by the different parties, they have, oftentimes, been so coloured by the prejudices on both sides, that it has become almost impossible to discover their true complexion. Meanwhile, to guard against the great calamity, the judicious have endeavoured to remove all those things, charged as the domestick sources of the disease, and at the same time to subject to quarantine all persons and things coming from suspected places, at certain seasons.

Such has been the conduct of the legislature of the state of New York. They have authorised the establishment of a board of health, in their metropolis, with powers to guard against every supposed source of the disease. The powers of this board appear to be ample; and it cannot be doubted that they must feel disposed to use every exertion to save themselves and their fellow citizens from this common scourge. Notwithstanding their efforts, the disease did prevail there the last autumn. During its prevalence, the board of health was necessarily the centre of information, respecting its origin and progress. The book before us was written by the secretary of that board. It was surely in his power, probably more than in any other man's, to command all the materials for such a work. If, therefore, he has not told the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, his crime must be considered nothing less than perjury.

We know not the character of Mr. Hardie, nor have we looked for information on this subject from any other quarter, with which his may be compared. For the present we must rely on the general complexion of the work, as the ground of an opinion. From this we are induced to believe, that Mr. H. is exceedingly well qualified for the task he has undertaken, and that he has executed it with accuracy and impartiality.

The first chapter of this work contains an account of the establishment of the board of health, at

New York, of the powers with which they were invested, and of the measures they adopted to prevent, and afterwards to restrain and mitigate the disease. In this chapter, therefore, we find an account of the first appearances of any alarming cases of fever ; and it also informs us of the extreme caution, with which the board proceeded, before they gave a publick alarm, as well as of their fidelity in reporting truly the existence of danger, when that was duly ascertained. From that time they published faithful reports ; and while the rich were warned to remove from the city, an asylum was opened for the poor. The propriety of such conduct needs not be displayed.

It appears that the first case, which was called yellow fever by any person, occurred on the 8th of June. From the 9th to the 24th of July three other cases occurred, which were believed, by many, to be of the same nature. The first case, which was acknowledged by both parties to be yellow or malignant fever, was that of James Dougherty. This occurred on the 24th of July, and was followed by a few cases in August ; but the disease was not epidemick till September 5th. Respecting Dougherty, it appeared, that he was at the quarantine ground on the 3d or 10th of July. This gives room for suspicion, that he contracted his disease there ; but on August 7th, it is asserted by the health officer, " that no case of yellow fever has existed either at the hospital, or on board the shipping at the quarantine ground since the first of July last, except those sick persons who have been sent from the city of New York." If, as was afterwards asserted by Dr. Hosack, there was an almost unlimited intercourse between the quarantine ground and the city, it must have been practicable to detect the health officer, had his assertion been unfounded. If it was true, we must inquire whether those persons sent from the city really had the yellow fever, and, if they had, whence its origin.

We had intended to examine the evidence on this subject at large, but this would lead us too far for the limits of a review. To state the evidence with sufficient precision, we must copy a great part of the work before us. To this therefore we refer, and it should be consulted by every man interested in this subject. The evidence is far from sufficient to decide the general question in controversy ; but we believe that every impartial reader will agree, that, *in this case*, the domestick origin of the yellow fever is rendered most probable.

We cannot pass over this chapter, without noticing a very handsome communication, which it contains, addressed by Dr. Sir James Jay, to the board of health. In this he proposes, in order to ascertain facts, and to narrow the ground of controversy, that the board should adopt the following method. " Desire the leaders of each party to give you *in writing* an *accurate history*, or description of yellow fever, mentioning particularly those *peculiar* symptoms attending its commencement, progress, and termination, which distinguish yellow fever from any other fever. These descriptions of yellow fever will be a kind of standard for you and other gentlemen to judge by, of all doubtful cases that may subsequently occur. When you have obtained such a history from each party, whenever a suspicious case appears, let a physician of each party visit the patient, and if they disagree as to the disorder, let them give you an account of the symptoms attending the case ; from whence, by comparing it with the standard, you may be able to judge whether it is yellow fever or not ; and whether the sick person should be removed, or not, to the marine hospital." Practitioners will see difficulties in this plan, and that it could not at once be carried into effect in the most perfect manner; it would however be gradually improved, and is certainly worthy to be adopted. Wherever medical men wish to attain truth, they might in this method succeed ; at the same time, the lovers of controversy would be, in some measure, restrained by the limits they would prescribe to themselves.

The second chapter contains an address from the board of health to the citizens of New York, dated Nov. 13. This gives a general account of their proceedings, and of the extent of the late disease. It displays feelings and principles, which do them honour.

The contents of the 3d and 4th chapters are sufficiently expressed in the title. The documents they contain are very valuable.

In the 5th chapter we have the "opinions of several eminent physicians respecting the cause of malignant fever, in several different parts of the United States." The first article is a letter from Dr. Pardon Bowen, of Providence, giving an account of the fever, which prevailed there the last summer. After detailing the facts, this very respectable physician infers, "that the fever was the yellow or malignant fever, and that it had its origin, or stood somehow or other connected with one or all three" of certain vessels he had mentioned. We refer inquirers to the letter; but we beg them to attend to the "extremely offensive bilge water," which made some workmen in the neighbourhood sick, causing some of them to vomit ; and which was "particularly offensive" to some persons who "had been much accustomed to the smell of bilge water." We do not mean to support the opinion, that the yellow fever derives its origin from the filth of our cities. Were we advocates for its domestick origin, we should not think it necessary to adopt this opinion. But justice requires us to remark, that in this instance, at Providence, the bilge water may as fairly be suspected to be the source of the disease, as any contagion imported.

The second article in this chapter is a communication from Dr. Hosack, which had been published in the Morning Chronicle. In this that gentleman refutes some calumnies, which it would seem had been thrown out against him. He also declares that the events of the last season tend to confirm the opinion he had held,—viz. "that the yellow fever is not the product of our own soil or climate, but is *always* introduced from *abroad*." He says the intercourse between the quarantine ground and the city was almost unlimited, but he does not state how the disease was introduced into the quarantine ground; and from the work which is under review we are led to suppose, that there was not any cause for a belief that the quarantine ground was infected from *abroad*. Dr. H. however adds, that "it is unnecessary for him to go into details; that a clue to the investigation of the facts upon this subject is in the possession of the proper authority,

&c." Till we learn to what circumstances Dr. H. refers, our final judgment upon this matter must be in some measure suspended. In the mean time we cannot readily believe that Mr. Hardie could be ignorant of any important facts upon this subject; nor can we more readily suspect that any man in his situation would attempt to conceal facts, which must inevitably be brought to light at a future period.

Dr. Hosack's communication is followed by a letter from Dr. Stuart of Grenada. This letter states some facts respecting the fever, which prevailed in Grenada in 1793, and expresses his conviction, that that disease was imported from Boullam in the ship Hankey. Dr. Stuart may have formed correct opinions respecting the origin of that disease, but surely his letter does not prove that the yellow fever is always imported either into the West-Indies, or into this country.

The fifth chapter is concluded by an extract from "a view of the climate and soil of the United States of America," by C. F. Volney. In this the subject of yellow fever is considered in a general way, and the Frenchman is seen in the discussion of it; but the extract contains many important remarks. Mr. Volney is decidedly of opinion, that the yellow fever may and actually does arise in the United States.

The sixth chapter contains a letter from Richard L. Walker and N. I. Quackenbos, physcians of the state prison of New-York, to the board of inspectors of that institution. In this letter it is stated, that two cases of yellow fever occurred in that prison in the month of August, one of them attended with the black vomiting. The writers add, "it deserved to be remarked, that the circumstances of the cases preclude all suspicion of their having infected one another, or of the disease having arisen from any foreign or contagious source." These cases deserve to be thoroughly investigated. We hope, that the believers in importation at New-York will strictly, but candidly inquire into this matter. It is presumed, that the physicians to the state-prison would readily assent to such an inquiry, as it would not imply any doubts of them, except such as arise from the fallibility of all men.

Chapter seventh contains "desultory observations and reflections." These do much credit to the author, and will be found interesting to readers in general, as well as to the faculty. In this chapter we are told that among more than twenty persons, exposed to James Dougherty, no one "received the least infection or contagion;" and several analogous remarks are made.

The eighth and last chapter on modes of cure is a valuable addition to the work.

To our imperfect analysis we add, that the perusal of this work has afforded us much satisfaction, and we recommend it to general attention.

Should unfortunately any of our cities be again visited by this malignant disease, we earnestly solicit persons, who may have similar opportunities for information, to publish similar works; and to remember, that fidelity and accuracy in the investigation and statement of facts will stamp on their productions the highest value.

NOTICES.

The Christian Monitor: a religious periodical work. By a society for promoting christian knowledge, piety, and charity. No. 1. Boston. Munroe & Francis. *pp.* 190.

Among the periodical publications of the day, there has been wanting one, which, without regard to sect, should consult the edification of christians in general. To encourage a work of this sort, we learn that a society was formed in the course of the year past, which has presented to the publick its incipient efforts in the little book before us. It consists of exhortations, prayers, and meditations suited to persons of various conditions in various circumstances. The sectary who loves nothing which does not breathe a spirit of party will find nothing here either savoury to his taste or provoking his malevolence. Equally remote from bigotry as from enthusiasm the Christian Monitor, we are told, numbers among its supporters and friends believers of diverse theological tenets. It has no features of a controversial character. It designs to strengthen that faith which is the pillar of morals, to brighten that hope which gilds the prospect of futurity, and to animate the labours of that love, which is the beginning and end of the gospel. It inspires the feeble convert with courage, and pours grace from its lips into the ear of penitence. It especially calls the young to the work of religion in the morning of life, that they may be saved the pangs of a bitter repentance, and the unavailing tears of those who, though they repent, are yet never made whole. It implores a plentiful stream for the thirsty, and a guide for the mourning pilgrim. It prays for the generations of men which are passing away, and for the children of God who are hastening to the grave.

Whilst we thus applaud the purpose and spirit of the work, we dare not give our unqualified approbation of the present number. The matter is good; but the manner is in numerous instances defective. The thoughts are important and striking; but in the expression and in the style there is an air of negligence and abruptness. The prayers are often begun and closed as though the author was in haste. Its worth has gratified its friends, and pleased the publick; but its excellence is not so conspicuously manifest as to silence the opposition of its enemies, or the clamours of criticism. We are satisfactorily informed that this valuable tract is undergoing some desireable amendments, that it will shortly appear from the press of Munroe and Francis in an improved form, and that the Society under whose patronage it is published will proceed with alacrity in their pious design.

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The poetical works of Richard Savage. With the life of the author. New-York: Wm. A. Davis. 1805.

Perhaps no poet of equal pretensions is so little read as Richard Savage: many remember his misfortunes, but few mention his verses. Why it has so fallen out it is difficult to say. Pope commended his muse and Johnson pronounced him a genius, and one would suppose the suffrages of such men were a sure indication of his durable renown. But, if the Bastard be excepted, there is little now that he is recalled by beside the Epigram on Dennis and the Biography of his Friend. Among the wits of his day he was as brilliant and ragged as Apollo could wish, and, though his life was irregular, his muse was correct. Poor Savage ! in the melancholy records of that description of gentlemen denominated bards, thy history is mournfully pre-eminent, and, though thy song may be neglected, thy errors will be remembered for a humiliation to genius.

This edition, enriched with Johnson's life of the author, is correctly put out of hand, but its typography is so diminutive, that it appears to have issued from the press of the Pigmies.

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Poems from the Portuguese of Luee De Camoens, with remarks on his life, &c. By Lord Viscount Strangford. 1 vol. 12mo. Philadelphia. Maxwell.

The life of Camoens was a life of continual hardship and danger ; yet he was encouraged by the inspiration of the Muses, and he was often blessed either by the gentle smiles or the pensive remembrance of the fairest ladies of his love. Like Ovid he was driven into exile for love, but sonnets and canzonets cheered and delighted him. He was shipwrecked in the East Indies, but, like Cæsar in Egypt, he saved his life by swimming with one hand, while with a noble spirit of literature he bore up his "Lusiad" with the other. His epick poem is known to the English reader by the translation of Mickle, who has made us acquainted with a variety of beauties, which are not to be found in the original, even by the patriotick researches of the Portuguese. The minor poems of Camoens now attract admiration and applause, which they never before received. We have not read the originals, and therefore cannot ascertain their value, but report says, that in Lisbon those only are highly esteemed for their simplicity, tenaciousness, and delicacy, which have for their subject the beauties of nature, or the feelings of love. Lord Strangford's poems, if we may judge from the Portuguese couplets, which are interspersed thro' the volume, are themselves original, for they bear no resemblance to the pretended architypes. Grace and elegance are the characteristicks of these canzons and sonnets. They are written by a nobleman, who, with the polish and ease of a court, has evidently united the strength and dignity of literature. They are on a variety of subjects, such as are easily suggested to a lover, a poet, and a wanderer ; and most are composed with the ardour of passion, wrought into refinement, and with the sentiments of nature, polished into elegance. The noble lord however frequently offends against purity and delicacy. We often admire the charms of his love songs, and we often lament that such poetry was written. This little volume is intended to be read, during the intervals of other pleasures and pursuits ; and when the ladies rise from the harpsichord, or return from their walk, they are often attracted by the sonnets of lord Stangford, which lie on the easy sofa or the pleasant parlour window. We know not what remedy to offer ; for when impropriety is decorated by the charms of delightful poetry ; when indelicacy of allusion is almost evanescent in the refinement of elegant phraseology; and, when the criminality of passion is superficially concealed by the fashionable embroidery or delicate needle work of fancy or sentiment, who will regard any interdiction of perusal; who will receive any counsel for discrimination?

If therefore licentious poetry is read, moral poetry must be read also; indelicacy must be manfully opposed by purity; the contagion of Little must be neutralized by Thomson; and where we are attracted into false sentiments, vicious feelings, and impure thoughts by the refined fascinations of Strangford, we must be recalled to truth, to sobriety, to virtue, and religion by the authority of Cowper.

These remarks chiefly apply to the poems on love, its operations, and analogies. The sonnets on other subjects are full of chaste nature and true sentiment. Strangford certainly will receive the sonnet wreath of English poetry from the youngest of the Graces. He has made us a most beautiful present of early leaves and vernal flowers; and though the spring fly has often corroded the green leaf, and the worm lurks in the musk rose, yet purity may throw these away, and accept only the tender sprigs and new flowers, which grow in the valley or by the running waters.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE U. STATES, FOR APRIL, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

SERMONS on various Subjects, evangelical, devotional, and practical, adapted to the promotion of chriſtian piety, family religion, and youthful virtue. By Joſeph Lathrop, D. D. paſtor of the firſt church in Weſt Springfield. 8vo. pp. 408.—Worceſter, Iſaiah Thomas, jun.

Rules and Orders of the Court of Common Pleas, called the Mayor's Court of the City of New York, approved 29th March, 1806. New York.

Obſervations on the impreſſment of American ſeamen, by the officers of ſhips of war, and veſſels commiſſioned by, and acting under the authority of Great-Britain; with a few remarks on the doctrine of non-exportation. To which is added a correct liſt of impreſſed ſeamen. By a citizen of Baltimore. Baltimore. Dobbin & Murphy.

A Geographical Dictionary of the United States of North America; containing a general deſcription of each ſtate, the population, number of acres, ſoil, productions, natural curioſities, &c.; a deſcription of the rivers, lakes, mineral ſprings, mountains, manufactures, trade, and commerce; with a ſuccinct account of the Indiana, Michigan, and upper and lower Louiſiana territories. Likewiſe the populations of thoſe counties, towns, &c. which have been aſcertained by the cenſus of 1800. To which is added a deſcription of more than 1000 places, not noticed in any former geographical work. Embelliſhed with a map of the United States. By Joſeph Scott, author of the United States Gazetteer, &c. Philadelphia. Jacob Johnſon, 12mo. 1806. 1 vol.

The American Farrier, adapted for the convenience of the farmer, gentleman, and ſmith, being a ſure guide to prevent and cure all maladies and diſtempers that are incident to horſes of what kind ſoever; and alſo for the diſeaſes incident to cattle. By Auguſtus Franklin. Fredericktown, Maryland.

The celebrated ſpeech of the Hon. John Randolph on the non-importation reſolution of Mr. Gregg. New York. Riley & Co. 8vo.

The Juvenile Expoſitor, or Sequel of the common Spelling Book. 12mo. New York, Daniel D. Smith.

Maſſachuſetts Militia Laws, publiſhed

under the inſpection of the Adjutant General of the Commonwealth, with the New Militia Act, paſſed March 1806. Price 25 cents. Boſton. Thomas & Andrews.

A diſcourſe, delivered in the Preſbyterian church in Wall-ſtreet, March 23d, 1806, at the requeſt of a ſociety of ladies, inſtituted for the benefit of poor widows with ſmall children. By Rev. Dr. Milledoler. New-York.

The Newport Female Evangelick Miſcellany, No. 1. 8vo. pp. 16. 12 cents. Newport, Rhode Iſland. 1806. Office of the Newport Mercury.

A funeral ſermon on the death of the Honourable Paul Mumford. By Joſhua Bradley, A. M. paſtor of the ſecond Baptiſt church in Newport. Publiſhed by requeſt. Newport, R. I. Farnſworth. 1805. 8vo. pp. 46.

An oration, delivered in the ſecond Baptiſt church in Newport, on the 4th of July, A. D. 1805. By Noah Biſbee, jun. Publiſhed at the requeſt of the author's friends. Newport, R. I. Office of the Newport Mercury. 1805. pp. 42. quarto.

A ſermon, preached at the funeral of Mr. Abdiel Loomis. By Moſes Warren, A. M. of South Wilbraham. Springfield, H. Brewer.

A ſermon, by Mr. Peter Jay. 8vo. pp. 23. Boſton, E. Lincoln.

NEW EDITIONS.

The four firſt volumes of Plowden's Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland. Firſt American edition. 8vo. Philadelphia. McLaughlin & Graves.

The Elements of Euclid. By Robert Simpſon, M. D. Emeritus Profeſſor of Mathematicks in the Univerſity of Glaſgow. 8vo. Price 2,50. Philadelphia, Matthew Carey.

The 5th vol. of Eaſt's Reports. Baltimore, Peter Byrne.

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Letters to a Young Lady on a Courſe of Engliſh Poetry. By J. Aikin, M. D. 12mo. pp. 230. Munroe & Francis, Boſton. Thomas & Whipple, Newburyport.

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The Principles of Religion, as profeſſed by the ſociety of Chriſtians, uſually called Quakers; written for the inſtruction of their youth, and for the information of ſtrangers. By Henry Tuke. From the London copy, with corrections and additions by the author. New York, 12mo. pp. 150. Collins & Co. 3 dols.

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IN THE PRESS.

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INTELLIGENCE.

Extract of a letter from a gentleman in Cambridge Univerſity (England) to one of the editors of the Anthology, dated February 6, 1806.

I AM glad, that you are actively employed in promoting a ſpirit and taſte for polite literature. In encouraging and effecting this object, I am certain that in your country in particular, men of letters will conduce more to the real happineſs and comforts of ſociety, than in acrimonious diſquiſitions on theology or politicks. You cannot too often inculcate to your countrymen a truth, of which too many of them appear regardleſs: "Didiciſſe fideliter artes, emollit mores nec ſinit eſſe feros." From theſe we may hope that the thrifty economy of the ſpeculator and merchant may in time be exacted into the liberality of the gentleman and ſcholar. Herbert Marſh has not publiſhed his ſermons: in which he perhaps acts wiſely, as the clamour would be very great, and ſuch is the nature of the champions in the oppoſite cauſe that St. Paul himſelf could not quiet them. I am glad that the great learning of H. Marſh has at length met ſome reward in a place on the civil liſt of £.500 per annum. Your complaint on the exceſſive dearneſs of books is very juſt, and much felt in England. The printers and bookſellers conſider nothing but themſelves, and have the power to do as they pleaſe.—I do not at preſent recollect any late work which I have read with ſo much pleaſure, as "The Lay of the laſt Minſtrel," a poem deſcriptive of Border manners, which in many places ſeems to me to contain the true ſpirit of ſong. The author is a gentleman, whoſe anceſtors were the actors, and who himſelf now lives on the ſcene of his ſtory.

Mr. Hayley, with that active philanthropy which marks every action of his life, has addreſſed the following circular letter to the perſons who have honoured the intention of raiſing a publick monument to Cowper by entering their names on the liſt of ſubſcribers:

"Gratitude and integrity ſeem to require from me, at this time, an addreſs to the favourers of a plan, which I propoſed to the publick, as a tribute due to a departed object of national eſteem and affection. To publiſh a Milton in three quarto volumes (including all the Manuſcripts of Cowper relating to Milton, at the price of ſix guineas, was a propoſal, that, with extenſive encouragement, might have gratified the wiſhes of Cowper's ardent admirers, and, in rendering a ſignal and juſt honour to him, might alſo have honoured the taſte of an enlightened and a liberal nation.

"Though the ſignature of ſeveral moſt reſpectable names ſeemed to afford an honourable ſanction to my firſt idea of a publick Monument for my literary friend, yet I am now diſpoſed to relinquiſh that idea; and I zealouſly ſolicit, not only thoſe who have befriended it, but the publick at large to co-operate with me in a new, and different, mark of regard to the memory of the poet, on a plan, which I haſten to explain, and to recommend to their favour.

"Since the publication of my firſt propoſal, a favourite godſon and nameſake of Cowper has had the misfortune to become an orphan at an early age. It has occurred to me, that I may improve the tribute of general reſpect to the memory of the poet, by converting his manuſcripts, relating to Milton, not into marble, but into a little fund, to aſſiſt the education and future eſtabliſhment of this intereſting orphan. I am confident that no tribute of reſpect to Cowper's memory could be more truly acceptable to his pure and beneficent mind than what I now propoſe; and I feel a pleaſure in believing, that I may gratify many of his admirers by affording them an opportunity of purchaſing the poſthumous poetry of my friend, and of indulging, at the ſame time, their feelings of tenderneſs and benevolence towards an orphan particularly endeared to the departed poet.

"It is therefore my preſent intention to print, not a Milton in three volumes, but the Latin and Italian poems of Milton tranſlated by Cowper (with all that remains of his projected diſſertations on Paradiſe Loſt) in one handſome quarto, at the price of two guineas.

"I cheriſh a ſanguine hope that the liberality of the publick, and a general wiſh to teſtify affectionate reſpect to Cowper's memory, in a manner, that will appear, I truſt, peculiarly ſuited to the tenderneſs and the beneficence of his character, may render ſuch a ſubſcription as I have now propoſed, in ſome degree adequate to the deſirable object in view.

"To thoſe who have honoured me with their names for higher ſums on my former plan, it is my duty to ſay, that the perſons who have paid their money to the reſpective bookſellers mentioned in the firſt propoſal, are at liberty to reſume the whole, or what portion of it they think proper.

"If, on the contrary, they generouſly devote the whole ſum (ſubſcribed towards a Monument for Cowper) to the orphan god-child of the poet, I think it right to aſſure them, that, whatever may be raiſed by the preſent application to their liberality, will be veſted in two truſtees, Samuel Smith, and John Sargent, eſquires, members of parliament, for the benefit of the Orphan, whom I have mentioned.

Feb. 4, 1806. **W. HAYLEY.**

Pelpham, near Chicheſter.

"Cowper's tranſlations from the Latin and Italian poems of Milton are already tranſcribed for the preſs, from the copy that includes his lateſt corrections.

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"Thoſe, who have made their reſpective payments, in conſequence of a different propoſal, are now gratefully deſired either to recall or confirm them at pleaſure."

Mr. Carr, who has already favoured the world with his Stranger in France, and with his Travels round the Baltic, has lately made the *Tour of Ireland*, and is now preparing an account of that almoſt unknown country which he intends to publiſh under the title of THE STRANGER IN IRELAND. The work will make one elegant volume quarto, ſimilar to *the Northern Summer*, and will be embelliſhed with a variety of engravings by MEDLAND from drawings by Mr. CARR.

Mr. Walter Scott, author of the Poem of the Lay of the laſt Minſtrel, is preparing an edition of the long neglected works of John Dryden.

The following details relative to the arts at Rome are given by one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed ſcientifick men of that city.—"We cannot boaſt of many literary productions, but, to make amends, great pains are taken for clearing, cleanſing, and better preſerving, the ancient monuments of architecture. His Holineſs has greatly promoted this part of the art, one of the moſt intereſting of antiquity.—The architect and the antiquary will acquire new ſubjects of erudition, and new works and new engravings will be rendered neceſſary. The Works of Deſgodetz, a new edition of which is about to be publiſhed by M. Carlo Fea, will derive an immenſe advantage from theſe labours, and will become almoſt entirely new. How different from what we have been accuſtomed to behold it, will appear that celebrated Pantheon, hitherto almoſt unknown, though the moſt beautiful of ancient edifices, and in the beſt preſervation! The Flavian Amphitheatre, or Coliſeum, will be cleanſed, and the publick will have acceſs to it, as to a muſeum. The Temple of the Sybil at Tivoli has been repaired; and the two arches of Septimius Severus and of Conſtantine have been cleared of the earth which covered them. The column of Antoninus has been cleaned, and is no longer covered with duſt. The ſuppoſed Temple of Veſta at Rome, on the Tiber, as well as the neighbouring one of *Fortuna Virilis*, will be cleared of the rubbiſh in which they have been as it were buried; and the interior of them will be cleanſed. Thus by the exertions of his Holineſs, ancient Rome will be expoſed to view, and modern Rome will be embelliſhed. Nor has the Holy Father forgotten the moſt celebrated of the modern buildings, the ſmall circular temple erected in 1502, after the deſigns of the illuſtrious Bramante Lazzeri, under the auſpices of Ferdinand the Catholick King of Spain. It fell into ruins ſome years ſince, not from age, but in conſequence of the late troubles. It was ſold, in order that its precious materials might be removed: but his holineſs has reſolved to repair it in a ſtyle of great elegance. In a ſhort time M. Carlo Fea will ſpeak of all theſe new undertakings in the ſecond volume of Miſcellanies, which he has particularly devoted to what relates to the reſearches now carrying on, excluſive of what will be ſaid in his Illuſtrations of Deſgodetz.—M. Guattani will likewiſe treat of them in a new journal which M. Carlo Fea is about to undertake. The former gentleman is at preſent engaged on the Sequel to the Unpubliſhed Monuments, in which will be found many intereſting particulars. The Muſeum of the illuſtrious Cardinal Borgia has paſſed into hands by which it will not be neglected. His nephew, the preſent poſſeſſor, is a man of information, and has a deep ſenſe of the glory which the Cardinal acquired for his family by this unique collection. He continues the engravings which his uncle intended to have executed from drawings of the moſt remarkable objects in the Muſeum. He has communicated the Mexican Manuſcript to M. Alexander von Humboldt, and has permitted him to make uſe of it for his work: but he is thwarted in his noble deſigns by the pretenſions of the *Propaganda*. The Cardinal made that ſociety his heir, but bequeathed the Muſeum and other legacies to his family. He unfortunately made uſe of the expreſſion, "My Muſeum which is at Velletri;" and the *Propaganda* claim a right to every thing that happened to be at Rome at the moment of the Cardinal's death, though the articles inconteſtibly formed part of the Muſeum.—By a ſecond fatality the Coptic inſtruments, for which M. Zoega has juſt completed the deſcription, were among the objects that had been brought to Rome. This important work cannot therefore be publiſhed till after the deciſion of the proceſs, unleſs the two parties come to a previous arrangement.—Two learned Sicilians, the Chevaliers Landolini and Serrini, have reſided for ſome time at Rome. The former, who has already evinced ſuch zeal for the antiquities of his country, is ſtill engaged in reſearches at the Theatre of Syracuſe; and we are indebted to him for the recent diſcovery of two fine ſtatues, an Æſculapius and a Venus, which, however, are not ſo beautiful as has been aſſerted. He is at this moment writing a Memoir on ſome inſcriptions found at the Theatre of Syracuſe. The Chevaliar Sirini is endeavouring to diſpoſe of his collection of volcanick productions, and is preparing for a tour in the north."

M. LARTIGUE has at length completed a large and beautiful map of America in relief. The mountains, iſlands, and the tints of the ſea, are all exhibited in a manner moſt capable of intereſting thoſe who make geography their ſtudy.

Rev. Iſrael Worſley, who has lately eſcaped from France, is about to publiſh in one volume, ſmall octavo, an Account of the State of France and its Government during the laſt Three Years, particularly as it has Relation to the Belgic Provinces and the Treatment of the Engliſh.

Mr. Duppa has in the preſs, and will publiſh early in the ſpring, a life of Michael Angelo Buonaroti, compriſing his character as a poet, painter, ſculptor, and architect.

Mr. Bigland has in the preſs, and nearly ready for publication, Letters on Natural Hiſtory. The object of this work is to exhibit the view of the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Deity, ſo eminently diſplayed in the formation of the univerſe, and the various relations of utility which inferiour beings have to the human ſpecies. It is calculated particularly for the uſe of ſchools, and for youth in general of both ſexes, and will be illuſtrated by upwards one hundred engraved ſubjects. The ſame writer has recently publiſhed a ſecond edition of his Letters on Ancient and Modern Hiſtory, in octavo, which forms a handſome library-book, with an elegant engraving of the author.

A variety of Lives of Lord Nelſon have been announced, from the price of ſixpence to one hundred guineas. The three moſt conſiderable are, that by Meſſrs. ARTHUR and CLARKE, and that under the patronage of the new Earl, and another from the houſe of Mr. BOWYER of Pall Mall. Each of them claims the recommendation of original materials; and as far as the ſubject itſelf is ſuſceptible of novelty of illuſtration, they all appear to be entitled to the patronage of the publick.

A moſt valuable collection of Eaſtern MSS., the property of Major Ouſeley, brother of Sir William Ouſeley, was brought to England by the laſt Bengal fleet. The number of Arabic, Perſian, and Sanſcript books, amounts to nearly fifteen thouſand volumes. Beſides theſe there are vaſt collections of natural hiſtory and mineralogy, and a great many botanical paintings executed in the moſt accurate manner. The quantity of additional curioſities and monuments is very great. There are many portfolios of immenſe ſize, containing mythological paintings of great antiquity, ſplendidly illuminated, and collected from all parts of Hindoſtan, from Thibet, Tartary, China, Ceylon, Ava, &c. To theſe are added ſeveral idols of ſtone, metal, wood, and other materials. There is alſo a cabinet of the moſt rare medals, gems, and other antiques. The treaſure is ſtill farther enriched with a complete ſeries of the coins ſtruck by Mahometan princes ſince the reign of Timour, and with ſpecimens of armour, horſe furniture, ſwords, ſpears, bows and arrows, and all the weapons uſed in Perſia, India, and other countries of the Eaſt. The Major has alſo executed, on the ſpot, in various parts of India, original drawings. He has alſo brought home muſical inſtruments, and ſeveral hundred tunes ſet to muſick by himſelf, from the voice of Perſian, Caſhmerian, and Indian ſingers. The ſituation of Major Ouſeley, as Aid-de-Camp to the Nabob of Oude, gave him great advantages for procuring ſuch commodities; and his acquiſitions, added to thoſe of his brother, Sir W. Ouſeley, who already poſſeſſes eight hundred Arabic, Perſian, and Turkiſh MSS., will form a more ſplendid collection than any that is poſſeſſed in Europe.

Mr. Kidd propoſes to publiſh a new edition of Homer, with collations of many manuſcripts never before examined.

One of the moſt intimate friends of Winkelmann, the celebrated German antiquary, named Berendis, lately deceaſed, left among his papers ſeveral letters of that celebrated man. Theſe have been publiſhed by Göthe, who has added various pieces of his own compoſition, in which he endeavours to place the character of Winkelmann in a new light as a writer and as a man, by delineating him in the moſt remarkable circumſtances of his life. Counſeller Wolfe, of Halle, has enriched this volume with a very curious piece on the literary and philological ſtudies of Winkelmann. Laſtly, profeſſor Meyer has contributed a well written Hiſtory of the Arts in the laſt Century, which concludes the work, to which Göthe has thought fit to give the title of " Winkelmann and his Age."

M. Schonberger, of Vienna, one of the firſt landſcape-painters of the age, has recently been engaged in a tour of the moſt pictureſque parts of Switzerland and Italy. His productions are principally diſtinguiſhed for the happy arrangement of the objects, for the effects of the perſpective, and the beauty of the colouring. This able artiſt is as well known in France as in Germany, by his beautiful pieces, in the exhibition of 1804. Theſe were, a View of the Environs of Baiæ, near Naples, at ſun-riſe ; the fall of the Rhine, near Schaffhauſen ; and the Caſcades of Tivoli, by moonlight : performances in which the touch and the native graces of Claude le Lorain were diſcoverable.

A new and complete edition of the Works of the celebrated Franklin will ſpeedily make its appearance in England. It will embrace not only all that is contained in former editions, but likewiſe much new matter tranſmitted expreſsly for the work from America. Beſide a correct likeneſs of the venerable philoſopher, it will contain eight engravings of ſcientifick ſubjects, executed by Mr. Lowry.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,

From March 20 to April 20.

THE weather during the latter part of March was cold and tempeſtuous. The winds moſt commonly north-eaſterly, and often accompanied with ſnow. The commencement of April brought milder weather and ſome eaſt winds. Afterward the wintry north-weſt returned, and prevailed to the end of the month. On the whole, the eaſt wind has exiſted leſs frequently than uſual, and the weather has been colder.

An epidemic catarrh attended with ſevere febrile ſymptoms, of ſhort duration, has been quite common. Slight inflammatory affections of the throat, and violent ones of the lungs, have appeared ; and rheumatiſm has occaſionally occurred.

Toward the cloſe of March an uncommon diſeaſe appeared at Medfield, the ſymptoms of which we ſhall record with as much accuracy, as our information will admit. Any thing further on this ſubject will be received with pleaſure from thoſe, who have ſeen the diſeaſe. It is ſaid that one or two caſes of the ſame nature appeared in Boſton. The ſubjects were children between the ages of eighteen months and two years. Thoſe, who could explain their feelings, ſaid they were attacked with a numbneſs in one arm, ſucceeded by violent pain in the head, nauſea and vomiting, throbbing of the carotid arteries, and redneſs of the eyes. In ſome of the caſes, there was great pain in the ſtomach and bowels, back, and limbs. The tongue was white, the pulſe, in this ſtage, very hard and quick. After theſe actions had continued a few hours, they gradually ſubſided. The arterial action eſpecially became very feeble, ſo that the pulſe in the wriſt could ſcarcely be felt ; though the vibration of the carotids ſtill appeared. Slight ſpaſms took place in ſome inſtances. Petechiæ appeared on various parts of the body. At laſt the vital and morbid actions diſappeared one after the other, the pulſe became imperceptible, a deathlike torpor ſucceeded and laſted ſome hours, after which the patient ſunk into the arms of death. The duration of the diſeaſe was generally from 18 to 36 hours. Of eight or nine patients affected, only one recovered, though the moſt active practice was employed. Inſpection of the bodies of 4 of the diſeaſed diſcovered nothing very remarkable. The veſſels of the brain and its membranes, eſpecially the pia mater, were ſomewhat turgid with blood ; the ſtomach and inteſtinal canal ſlightly inflamed. Medfield is a village 18 miles from Boſton. It contains 800 inhabitants, and is conſidered healthful. In the laſt autumn, many caſes occurred of the autumnal fever, but it was not unuſually fatal. No peculiar local cauſe has been detected, which can poſſibly be conſidered the ſource of this diſeaſe. The patients were within a ſpace of two miles ; but there was no reaſon to think the diſeaſe was communicated from one to another. In one inſtance, two of the affected were of the ſame family. We have related the facts, and leave others to ſpeculate upon them.

The appearance of *ſmall pox*, in this town and a neighbouring one, during this month, has produced a large number of caſes of vaccination ; ſo that there is ſcarcely a phyſician in town, who has not, at preſent, ſome patients with the diſeaſe.

THE

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ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No. 5.*

Pozzuoli...the Solfaterra...Monte Nuovo...Lake of Avernus...Ruins of Baiæ...Baths of Nero...Cape Misenus...Elysian fields.

I MUST carry you once more through the grotto, to see the environs of Pozzuoli, abounding with various interesting objects. It is necessary to leave the carriage at Pozzuoli, and take a mule or a boat, according to the object you have in view.

Pozzuoli is a small town, about five miles from Naples ; it is at present a place of little consequence, though the ruins of its ancient edifices attest its former importance. As the works of nature demand precedence of those of art, I shall give you some account of the valley of Solfaterra, situated about a mile from the town. After ascending gradually the greater part of a mile, the road descended a little and entered the valley. This is an ancient volcanick crater, about half a mile in circumference. The bottom is composed principally of sulphur in a crude state. If you take up a stone and let it fall upon the ground, the hollow sound which is returned is a proof of the cavity beneath, and makes you tremble at your situation. It is surrounded by rugged rocks, except at the entrance, which exhibit the action of fire to which they have been exposed, and in many different places the smoke is seen climbing up their summits. At the extremity of the valley a building is erected for making allum ; and the boilers are heated by the natural fire of the place. The hot vapour and steam here issue through the crevices with violence and noise. To one unused to these scenes these workmen did not appear in a safe situation ; but habit subdues fear, and the workmen have no more idea of danger than if they were working at a common fire. I saw many beautiful specimens of native sulphur, and many christalizations of sulphur and nitre ; but they are so liable to be destroyed by the moisture that I did not think it worth while to bring them away.

In the neighbourhood of Pozzuoli are the ruins of an ancient amphitheatre of great extent. Two stories of it yet remain. In a garden in the town, an ancient temple was discovered a few years since, beneath the surface of the earth. Excavations were made by order of the court, and the temple was cleared of the dirt and rubbish in which it was buried ; all the moveable objects were transported to the museum at Portici. The antiquarians have decided that it was dedicated to Jupiter Serapis. The external walls were square, and against them are a number of small chambers, twelve or fifteen feet square, destined to the priests. The altar in the centre was encircled with superb granite columns, the greater part of which are thrown down. The temple was formerly filled with water to the height of seven or eight feet, and the lower part of these columns present the same appearance as a piece of wood which has been, in the sailor's phrase, *honey-combed*. The worms have bored holes in the granite four or five inches in depth, some of them big enough to insert a finger. When it is considered that granite is one of the hardest species of stones, these holes must certainly be esteemed a singular curiosity.

After seeing the ruins about Pozzuoli, I took a boat to cross over to the coast of Baiæ. Some ruined piers which project into the harbour, are vulgarly called the Bridge of Caligula, but are supposed to be the ruins of the ancient mole. I landed near Monte Nuovo, which is on the edge of the water between Pozzuoli and Baiæ. This mountain is about a mile in circumference, and two hundred feet perpendicular. It rose up on the night of the 29th of September, 1538, after a succession of earthquakes. It buried a village and separated the lake of Avernus. Its surface is barren, producing only a few shrubs, and coarse grass. Behind the Monte Nuovo is the Lake Avernus immortalized in the sixth book of the Æneid. The gloomy wood that formerly surrounded it, that pestilential air, which was fatal to the birds who flew over it, no longer exist, exexcept in the description of the poet. I cannot give you a better account of it than in the words of manuscript, before quoted :...“ The lake of Avernus is an object interesting to the naturalist, the poet, and the historian. It is the crater of a volcano, filled with water, which was sounded by admiral Mann and found to be 600 feet in depth. Aristotle calls it one of the prodigies of this kind that existed on the earth. The ancient Grecians made it their hell, imagined it to be surrounded with four rivers, and gave them names of rivers in their own country. The Romans, with Virgil at their head, followed the same idea. They called the Lucrine Lake, Cocytus ; the Lake of Fusaro, Acheron ; the baths of Nero, or rather the subterranean source of them, was Phegethon ; and lastly, the waters in the obscure chambers at the bottom of the lake of Avernus, commonly called the Grotto of the Sybil, were the Styx. What Homer says of the Cimmerian regions, in the travels of Ulysses, relates according to Dacier and the other criticks to the environs of Avernus. Strabo had anciently the same opinion. In the obscure, gloomy wood, that formerly surrounded this place, Æneas gathered the golden branch that procured him admittance into the infernal regions.” In the neighbourhood are a great many ruins, among which are those of Cumæ.

At some distance from the Monte Nuovo, towards Baiæ, are the baths of Nero. The beach is here interrupted by some rocks and ruined walls which project into the sea. Among these the steam and vapour is continually issuing from the boiling pool below, which is at the extremity of a dark, narrow, winding cave. To descend to this boiling water, requires a violent effort ; it is necessary to strip to the skin, and even then possess considerable resolution to penetrate in the dark, almost stifled with the heat and steam. A fellow is always ready with a bucket, in which he puts two or three eggs, and going into the cave, dips it into the pool below, and by the time he returns into the open air, the eggs are sufficiently boiled. I eat an egg cooked in the water from this natural cauldron ; the man who went down appeared to be much exhausted by the exertion. I entered the cave a little way to experience the effect. At first I could walk upright, without any inconvenience from the vapour which passed over my head. After three or four yards, it was necessary to stoop a little ; and in progressing farther I went upon my hands and knees, till the vapour growing hotter and hotter, I was glad to turn round and escape into the open air. This boiling water is not confined to a small spot ; even on the beach, under the rocks for several yards, if you scrape away the sand a few inches on the very edge of the water of the bay, the hole is filled with boiling water. Near these rocks there is a bathing room with an arched ceiling, on which some of the stucco is still remaining. This is said to have been part of the palace of Nero, and was probably supplied from the boiling source just described.

I now returned to the boat, and and being rowed a short distance, was landed at Baiæ. Ancient Baiæ is now covered with the sea, the highest parts of a few buildings only remain. Three of these are very remarkable, and are called Tempio di Venere, Tempio di Mercurio, Tempio di Minerva ; but these names are given without foundation, and the antiquarians suppose them to have been anciently Thermæ. The Temple of Mercury is circular, and lighted by an opening from the top ; the earth now rises to within a few feet of the cornice. A very strong reverberation is produced, by striking the ground with a stick, and a whisper against the wall is distinctly heard on the other side. The little ruin called the Tempio di Venere is the most beautiful I have ever seen. It is of an octagon form, overgrown with ivy, and is extremely picturesque. These and some other shapeless ruins are all that remain of ancient Baiæ. This beautiful coast has experienced the most extraordinary changes from the violent earthquakes, with which it has been ravaged. Under the wall of a large castle, in a very commanding situation, are placed a few habitations, the inhabitants of which cultivate the vineyards situated among the ruins, and this is all the population of modern Baiæ. What a reverse ! Even in the most luxurious days of ancient Rome, this place became a proverb from the sensuality and debauchery of its inhabitants, the beauty of the climate, and those fascinating shores, once the theme of the poets and the resort of the dissipated. The corruption of Baiæ was a theme of perpetual satire with the moralists, among whom Martial says that the most virtuous matron in Rome would be converted into a perfect Messalina in this dangerous residence. Seneca asserts that it could not be the residence of any person possessed of any principle of virtue, and Cicero was reproached for having a villa in this neighbourhood.

No longer the haunt of pleasure and dissipation, the coast of Baiæ is strewed with ruins ; earthquakes have destroyed its temples and palaces, but the delicious climate still remains, and the landscape is still beautiful and picturesque.

Again embarking I left Baiæ and landed on the other side of the

Castle. At every step some ruin is to be seen; one is pointed out, as being the tomb of Agrippina, murdered by her infamous son: but there is no authority for this supposition. A little farther on are the *cente camerelle*, or the prisons of Nero. These are narrow subterranean galleries, which are thought to have supported some terrace. There is nothing in their construction to justify the idea of their having been prisons.

After gaining the summit of the hill, the guide conducted me into the *pisciene mirabile*. This is a vast reservoir, under ground, about seventy feet in depth; the roof is supported by square pillars covered with stucco, which are as entire as if they had been just constructed. This immense reservoir was formerly filled with water, though for what particular purpose is not known. It is generally supposed to have been for the Roman fleet, stationed at Misenum. The water has encrusted these columns with a substance of excessive hardness; it is half an inch in thickness, and is capable of receiving the most beautiful polish. It is manufactured into various little ornaments.

From this hill is seen the promontory of Misenum, the Mare Monte, and the Elysian Fields, in which are the ruins of ancient tombs. This view, which the pencil alone can give any idea of, does not need the additional interest, which their classick names excite, to chain the admiring stranger to its beauties. The most interesting classick recollections here unite with the fantastick, the wonderful, and beautiful appearances of nature to excite alternately the most delightful sensations, or plunge the mind into the most pleasing reveries. Every foot of these places is classick ground, and, before viewing them, looking into some of the Roman poets, adds vivacity to the sensations they excite; above all, every one ought to read the sixth book of the Æneid before he makes this excursion.

The pleasure of the traveller, in viewing these scenes, is interrupted and partly destroyed by the number of beggars, which surround him. The number of poverettos and miserabiles who are haunting your steps seem like the ghosts of the ancient inhabitants, and society appeared to me to be more ruined than the buildings.

ACCOUNT OF THE PRESENT STATE OF LITERATURE AND THE ARTS IN ITALY.

[Concluded from p. 184.]

ON our arrival at the frontiers of the Italian Republick, at Scaricalasini, situated on the summit of the Appenines, we began to be tormented by customhouse-officers. In the Roman and Tuscan territories little ceremony had been made respecting our passes and trunks, but in the Republick we were treated with such suspicious severity, that, in spite of all the inconveniences to which we were subjected by this conduct, it frequently appeared perfectly ludicrous. I had a parcel of books in my trunk, and had not the least idea that they could give any umbrage; but they caused us a thousand vexations, which continued from the moment we entered the

Republick till we reached the foot of the Splügen, where its jurisdiction terminates. When the books were discovered, I was told that my trunk must be sealed up till we arrived at Bologna, because the strictest orders had been issued to suffer no books to enter the territories of the State, without the precaution of sending them sealed to Bologna, where they would be returned to me after they had been revised. When I expressed my surprize to the custom-house-officer, and added, that I should have expected such a proceeding in the Papal dominions, but not in the Italian Republick, he replied very frankly, "Yes, it should be so; but at present we are more afraid of books than of the Pope." At Bologna, notwithstanding all my remonstrances, my books were declared to be merchandize, and in that city, as well as at Parma and Milan, I was obliged to pay duty for them as such. During all this time I was never master of my trunks, for in all the towns through which we passed, they were detained at the custom house. In this blessed republick all the regulations relative to travellers are calculated only to harass and extort money. In the Parmesan, which is now a French province, we experienced the same vexatious treatment as to our trunks, passes, &c.

Our residence at Bologna was so short, that I could only visit the Gallery of Sampieri, where many old impressions were renewed. In this city Italian literature still maintains the preponderance, and I found only two booksellers who sold French works. At Modena, Parma, and Milan, the trade in French books, and probably the study of French literature, is at least on a par with the Italian. At Bologna I met with a few more books in the Bolognese dialect, for my collection of the various dialects of Italy.

At Modena there are few works of art worthy of notice, since the ducal collection has been removed from the palace.—At the library, which is admirably arranged, and is particularly copious in historical works, I spoke with the Padres Pozzetti and Scotti, who jointly perform the office of librarian, which was before held by Tiraboschi, and his predecessor, Muratori, alone. The manuscripts occupy a spacious apartment. Among other curiosities I saw a beautiful copy of Provençal Poems, containing pieces by 143 different poets. At a bookseller's in this place I found two new works, which considerably interested me. One of these was an Italian Translation of Kotzebue's Misanthropy and Repentance, and the other an Exposition and Examination of Kant's Philosophy, by Francesco Soave. Out of curiosity I bought the latter, a pamphlet of only 108 pages, fifty-two of which are occupied with the Exposition, and the remainder with the Examination. Upon closer inspection I found that what the author calls his Exposition, is nothing more than a scanty extract from that of Villars. In his Dedication to the Vice-President Melzi, he says, that he undertook this examination of a System, which is beginning to extend itself in Italy, only with a view to warn and caution youth against studying it; for, says he, in another place, it has been forbidden even in Germany by several Governments, and has been ill-received by almost all. After this it may easily be conceived how his examination and refutation are conducted. It does not appear that M. Soave has understood, or taken in a proper sense, a single sentence of his author; and even what is most intelligible is distorted and placed in a ludicrous light. I was informed, when too late, that this Italian Anti-Kantist resides at Modena, where he is teacher of philosophy at the *Collegio*, or *Liceo Nazionale*, otherwise I should have made a personal acquaintance with him. Soave has long been esteemed in Italy as a man of talents. He is the author and translator of several works, and has written a *Grammatica Ragionata della Lingua Italiana*, which is accounted the best Italian Grammar extant, though it is rather a sketch than a complete work; likewise a collection of *Novelli Morali*, in two volumes, each containing eighteen tales which are narrated with great ease, and are in high estimation for the elegance and purity of their style. He has likewise written a System of Logick and Metaphysicks, after the manner of Locke and Condillac. Among his translations, that of Virgil's Georgics is much esteemed. He has likewise rendered into his native language the Idylls of Gesner, and the Abstract of Locke on the Human Understanding, by Wynne.

At Parma I found, to my regret, that the beautiful Corregios which I saw there ten years since, were gone. I was unable to obtain admission to the pieces by Corregio, which were found in an apartment in a nunnery, and which Bodoni made known in a splendid work, with a description by Gherardo de Rossi, of Rome. Bodoni would, however, have procured me access to them, had not the only person that can enter the convent whenever he pleases, the French Prefect, who is a friend of Bodoni's, been indisposed. The designs for the engravings of Bodoni's work were sketched by Vieyra, a Portuguese, in a few hours. Another artist, of the name of Trevisani, is at present employed by the French Prefect in taking copies of them in oil. At the Academy, which now contains nothing but the prize-pieces of young artists, I heheld, on a small scale, the effects of French rapacity, which we experienced at Rome in a much greater degree. All the antique statues which formerly stood in the hall of the Academy, and those dug out of the subterraneous ruins of Velleji, stood packed up in chests, ready to be sent off to Paris. Among them were some busts of Emperors, and figures with most exquisite draperies.

Bodoni's printing-office at Parma is a curiosity which no traveller ought to omit seeing. The proprietor himself is a man of the utmost politeness, cordiality, and good-nature, with whom you feel the same freedom in the first minute as with an old friend. His acquaintances know perfectly well how to take advantage of his disposition to serve every one. When any of them has produced a paltry poem, a discourse, or any worthless trifle, the kind Bodoni is easily prevailed upon to print it; and thus a great quantity of trash passes through his presses, and is purchased at high prices, on account of the beautiful type, by the collectors of works of his printing. His splendid editions of the Latin Classicks are in less estimation than the Italian, because they are not very correct. Didot has detected a number of very gross errors in his Virgil. Of his Italian authors, the works of Tasso, *Aminta*, and the *Gierusalemma Liberata*, edited by the Abate Serassi, are in high repute for their correctness. His Petrarca deserves the same commendation. On the contrary, the admirable Roman edition of Dante, by Padre Lombardi, is justly preferred to Bodoni's, which was edited by Monsignor Dionisi, of Verona. Dionisi ought perhaps to have been more capable than any other person of producing a correct edition of the *Divina Commedia*, for he devoted about thirty years of his life almost entirely to the study of Dante, and there is not a manuscript in Italy, not an early or a rare edition, which he has not collated, for the sake of the different readings. But instead of taking one of the best editions for his ground work, and then judiciously selecting the best readings, he has, according to his caprice, composed a *Pasticcio* of them all, and produced a text that has no other authority than the taste of Monsignor Dionisi, which none can certainly allow to be genuine. Padre Lombardi, during the eighteen years be was employed on his Dante, likewise collated most of the MSS. and early editions ; but posessing more judgment, he selected the *Nidobeatina* edition for his groundwork. He gives his reasons for rejecting or admitting certain readings, which are almost always judicious, and, in consequence of fortunate conjectures, which he afterwards found confirmed by MSS., has amended the text where it wanted correction. On this account Bodoni's Dante is in less request, while his Tasso and Petrarca are caught up with avidity. He defers his intended edition of Ariosto, which the amateurs have long been anxiously expecting ; he says he is afraid of undertaking a work of such magnitude, in six volumes, and various sizes. He has an idea of commencing a Homer, in four volumes, in large folio. He intends to print only the text, and was still undecided what edition to select for the groundwork. My companion, M. Riemer, a worthy pupil of Wolf, advised him to take the edition by that author, which is universally acknowledged to be the best, both for the correctness of the text and of the impression.

The two equestrian statues of the Dukes Alexander and Ranieri Farnese, in the square at Placenza, deserves to be ranked among the most distinguished productions of modern art, notwithstanding all the violations of good taste observable in their style. They are symbolical. The hero Alexander is represented riding against the tempest, which blows back his robe and the mane of his snorting charger. The whole group has an air of boldness, and appears to be pushing forward with a resolution becoming a warrior. The figure of Alexander is however rather too mean for a hero. The other, who is a statesman, rides at a more moderate pace, and in a more cautious manner. The forms of both the horses might be better ; but there is great spirit in their movements.—How different is the impression made by the representation of a Cosmo de Medici, an Alexander Farnese in the coat of mail of the middle ages, and mounted on a stately charger, and by the figure of a naked Bonaparte, striding forward with a globe in one hand, and a long stick in the other, as Canova has represented him, and for which, as may easily be conjectured, that artist has received unbounded applause.

The nearer the traveller approaches to Milan, the more dusty, but likewise the more lively, the roads become. The soil is also in a much higher state of cultivation. To discover here any traces of the war would require a penetrating eye: that its effects are still felt both by the inhabitants of the country and of the city, I was informed by several: yet the general affluence and the native industry of the people announce, that in a few years of peace they would cease to be felt, if the mother republick did not continually send out new leeches. Milan is at present, beyond dispute, the most cheerful and lively town in Italy; and though in the populous city of Naples there may be more noise and tumult, yet in the former there is more really useful activity and bustle. The excessive luxury which now prevails at Milan, indeed shews that a small number are revelling at the expense of the majority. You, however, perceive no misery; and though the necessaries of life are dear, yet there is a great quantity of specie in circulation. Every thing is so Frenchified at Milan, that you scarcely conceive yourself to be in Italy; and to a person coming from the south of Italy, the Milanese dialect sounds like a French *Patois*.

In this place you hear a great number of the *literati* speaking of Kant's philosophy, but I did not meet with one who was acquainted with it intimately, and through the original source. In general, an inexpressible confusion and fermentation at present prevails in the heads of the young *literati* at Milan. Unfortunately it can never take a favourable turn as long as they are obliged to borrow the light that is to illumine them from their neighbours on the Seine. The celebrated poet Monti, who obtained such reputation by his *Bassevilliade*, is lecturer of the *belles-lettres* at the academy of Brera. The Academy of arts is under the direction of a young artist, of twenty-five, called Bossi, who notwithstanding his youth, fills that post with ability and dignity. He is an artist of extraordinary talent, and an uncommonly cultivated mind. By his means many an important improvement has already been made in the academy, and he hopes to effect others with the assistance of Melzi, whose confidence he possesses. The class of decorators and of the artisans in general, who make architectonic ornaments, enjoys the benefit of the instruction and models of Albertolli, the most expert artist in that line in all Italy. Nothing can be more tasteful, more neat and ornamental, than his drawings and inventions, which are partly known by three volumes of engravings of his embellishments. Appiani is esteemed a capital portrait-painter, and indeed the first in Italy, and he deserves that character; but he must not be compared with the ancient great portrait painters of Italy and other countries. Our modern art has its peculiar character, and a particular point from which it must be viewed. Our present painters are no more able to rival Titian, Raphael, Dürer, and Holbein, than our sculptors can vie with those of ancient times. The ancient works are the fixed classick rule, the standard of unattainable excellence, and only to approach this perfection is a great commendation for a modern artist. A modern production of art possesses great merit if it but evince some traces of resemblance to the works of antiquity. I saw some portraits at Appiani's, which had much nature and gracefulness in the disposition.—His colouring is charming, but not true ; rather delicate than strong. I was particularly pleased with his treatment of inferiour objects, which appear to be, but actually are not, neglected. They are merely subordinate to the principal subject. This artist has likewise made some attempts in the historical way, but he will scarcely obtain any great reputation in that line. He is not destitute of inventive talent, but his composition and design are deficient in style, and his figures in character. Appiani possesses a Madonna in excellent preservation, said to be by Leonardo da Vinci, to which he attaches a very high value, but upon nearer examination it might perhaps be only a Luini.

Such are the few observations I had an opportunity of making on literature and the arts during my expeditious journey through Italy. I now hasten to close my long letter, while I cast a farewel look towards the enchanting land in which I have resided almost ten years, which I love as my adopted country, which has furnished me with a never-failing source of exquisite recollections, and which, in the gloomy and inclement regions of the North, will present my fancy with the images of a serener heaven and a more delightful earth.

SILVA. No. 15.

Nil non mortale tenemus,
Pectoris exceptis, ingeniique bonis. OVID.

IN some such gloomy moment as that of parting with a friend, or of wounding my body, I cannot but meditate on the evanescent nature of human life. These heavens, say I, are magnificent, but I shall not always behold them : this terrestrial scenery is luxuriant and beautiful, but it will not charm me forever. I had a friend, in whose vigour I rejoiced, whose knowledge instructed, and whose humour delighted me ; but the place that knew him knows him no more. If I repair to the well-known closet, its occupant is gone ; if I visit the parlour circle, his musical and facetious voice is not heard. At club, on 'change, in the mall, I no longer meet his intelligent eye, nor grasp his beneficent hand. If I visit his tomb, I see nothing but a mass of offensive ashes. Yet he is immortal by his living thoughts and glowing words. The ars omnium conservatrix artium still reflects the image of his heart and shows the imperishable beauty of his mind. I learn instruction from the fact. I too would leave some print of my hand and some vestige of my foot in the dust of this globe. I cheerfully assist in planting this forest and forming this parterre, in the hope that they will live in youthful efflorescence, when he who now sees me at my labour, shall seek me and I shall not be.

PROGRESS OF THE ARTS.

FIRST the necessary arts are practised, afterward those which are convenient and pleasurable. First hunting, then fowling, then fishing. First pasturage, then agriculture, then gardening. First thatched houses, then log...framed

....brick.....stone.....marble. First besmearing the body, then skins.... coarse cloths....dyed cloths...linens ....muslins....bleaching....washing... and all the tinkling ornaments of a Parisian belle.

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BLAIR

is justly esteemed an elegant writer; but his labour is fully equal to his success. Without a particle of genius, he disputes the ground with fame inch by inch. He fabricates his sentences as the weaver does his cloth, yet with more toil, and less satisfaction.

—

PETRONIUS ARBITER.

NONE better deserves a page in eccentrick biography than this extraordinary man. He seems to have possessed the learning, knowledge of the world, and the graces, which lord Chesterfield so eagerly desired for his son. He was a scholar, a courtier, and a debauchee. In his consular office he emulated the patriotism of Brutus and the dignity of Scipio; yet in private life he was an extravagant epicure, and tolerated in his friends the grossest impurities. He had an almost incredible versatility of temper and talents. As occasion suited, he could be grave with philosophers, a mimick with buffoons, cruel as Nero his master, or sportive as the lamb that frolicks on the mountain's side. He spent the day in sleep and negligence, and the night in loves, gaiety and song. He was serious in trifles, and he trifled with every thing serious. He even mocked the solemnities of death, causing his veins to be opened and closed alternately, until nature refused to supply farther opportunity to his indifference and pastime. He was equally singular in his writings. Sometimes he scourged and sometimes he praised the profligate favourites of a profligate court, and used his wit and learning by turns to provoke and to condemn the excesses of his time. But notwithstanding the depravity of his manners and the obscenity of his pen, there are several editions of his works; and the ingenuity of christian editors has been often exercised to ascertain the meaning of his funny puns, and indicate the point of his wicked epigrams. The following story will show the playful elegance of his satire, though none will believe it as a matter of fact. Matrona quædam Ephesi tam notæ erat pudicitiæ, ut vicinarum quoque gentium feminas ad sui spectaculum evocaret. Hæc ergò cum virum extulissit, non contenta vulgari more funus passis prosequi crinibus, aut nudatum pectus in conspectu frequentiæ plangere, in conditorium etiam prosequuta est defunctum, positumque in hypogæo, græco more, corpus custodire ac flere totis noctibus diebusque cœpit. Sic affligentem se ac mortem inediâ persequentem non parentes potuerunt abducere, non propinqui: magistratus ultimò repulsi abierunt; complorataque ab omnibus singularis exempli femina quintum jam diem sine alimento trahebat. Assidebat ægræ fidissima ancilla, simulque et lacrymas commendabat lugenti, et quoties defecerat, positum in monumento lumen renovabat. Una igitur in tota civitate fabula erat; et solum illud affulsisse verum pudicitiæ amorisque exemplum omnis ordinis homines confitebantur: cum interim imperator provinicæ latrones jussit crucibus affigi, secundum illam eandem casulam, in qua recens cadaver matrona, deflebat. Proxima ergò nocte cum miles, qui cruces servabat, ne quis ad sepulturam

corpora detraheret, notasset sibi et lumen inter monumenta clarius fulgens, et gemitum lugentis audisset; vitio gentis humanæ concupiit scire quis aut quid faceret. Descendit igitur in conditorium; visaque pulcherrima muliere, primo quasi quodam monstro, infernisque imaginibus turbatus substitit: deinde ut et corpus jacentis conspexit, et lacrymas consideravit, faciemque unguibus sectam; ratus scilicet, quod erat, desiderium exstincti non posse feminam pati; attulit in monumentum cœnulam suam, cœpitque hortari lugentem, ne perseveraret in dolore supervacuo, et nihil profuturo gemitu pectus diduceret: omnium eundem exitum esse: sed et idem domicilium; et cætera, quibus exulceratæ mentes ed sanitatem revocantur. At illa ignota consolatione percussa, laceravit vehementius pectus, ruptosque crines super pectus jacentis imposuit. Nec recessit tamen miles sed eadem exhortatione tentavit dare mulierculæ cibum, donec ancilla vini certè ab eo odore corrupta, primum ipsa porrexit ad humanitatem invitantis victam manum: deinde refecta potione et cibo, expugnare dominæ pertinaciam cœpit: et quid proderit, inquit, hoc tibi, si soluta inedia fueris? si te vivam sepelieris? si, antequam fata poscant, indemnatum spiritum effuderis?

Id cinerem aut manes credis curare sepultos?

Vis tu reviviscere reluctantibus fatis exstinctum? vis discusso muliebri errore, quam diu licuerit, lucis commodis frui? ipsum te jacentis corpus ammonere debet, ut vivas. Nemo invitus audit, cum cogitur aut cibum sumere, aut vivere. Itaque mulier aliquot dierum abstinentia sicca, passa est frangi pertinaciam suam: nec minus avide replevit se cibo, quam ancilla, quæ prior victa est. Cæterum scitis quid tentare plerumque soleat humanam satietatem. Quibus blanditiis impetraverat miles, ut matrona vivere vellet, iisdem etiam pudicitiam ejus aggressus est. Nec deformis, aut infacundus juvenis castæ videbatur, conciliante gratiam ancilla, ac subindè:

—Placitone etiam pugnabis amori?
Nec venit in mentem quorum consederis arvis?

Quid duitius moror? ne hanc quidem mulier partem corporis abstinuit victorque miles utrumque persuasit. Jacuerunt ergo una, non tantum illa nocte, qua nuptias fecerunt, sed postero etiam ac tertio die, præclusis videlicet conditorii foribus, ut quisque ex notis ignotisque ad monumentum venisset, putasset exspirasse super corpus viri pudicissimam uxorem. Cæterum delectatus miles et forma mulieris et secreto, quicquid boni qui facultates proterat, coemebat; et prima statim nocte in monumentum ferebat. Itaque cruciarii unius parentes, ut viderunt laxatam custodiam, detraxere nocte pendentem, supremo que mandaverunt officio. At miles circumscriptus dum residet, ut postero die vidit unam sine cadavere crucem; veritus supplicium, mulieri, quid accidisset, exponit: nec se exspectaturum judicis sententiam, sed gladio jus dicturum ignaviæ suæ: commodaret modo illa perituro locum et fatale conditorium familiari ac viro faceret. Mulier non minus misericors quam pudica; Nec istud, inquit, Dii sinant ut eodem tempore duorum carissimorum hominum duo funera spectem: malo mortuum impendere, quam vivum occidere. Secundum hanc orationem, jubet corpus mariti sui tolli ex arca, utque illi, quæ vacabat, cruci adfigi.

Usus est miles ingenio prudentissimæ feminæ; posteroque die populus miratus est, qua ratione mortus isset in crucem !

We gladly embrace an opportunity of performing a promise long since made, and insert the following Life of Bentley from a London publication of 1783. The profound and unequalled learning of this Great Scholar is now universally acknowledged, and at length

.....Nations slowly wise and meanly just
To buried merit raise the tardy bust.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, England.

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.
PLATO, de Legib. IV.

RICHARD BENTLEY, was born on the twenty-seventh of January, 1662, at Oulton, in the parish of Rothwell, near Wakefield, in Yorkshire. He was descended from a family of some consideration, who possessed an estate and seat, at Hepenstall, near Hallifax. His father, Thomas Bentley, was a reputable tradesman, at Wakefield, and married the daughter of Major Richard Willis, of Oulton, who had formerly engaged in the service of the unfortunate Charles.

This lady, who possessed an excellent understanding, initiated her son Richard in his accidence. His father died while he was young, but left him a faithful guardian and firm friend in his grandfather, who placed him at the Grammar school in Wakefield, where he was distinguished for the quickness of his parts, and regularity of behaviour.

At a very early age, for he was not yet fifteen, Mr. Bentley was admitted of St. John's College, Cambridge, May 24th, 1676, under the tuition of Mr. Johnson. On the twenty-second of March, 1682, while he was a junior bachelor, he stood candidate for a fellowship. His youth was the only obstacle to his success. The statutes of that college prohibit the election of *fellows*, who are not old enough to be admitted to priests' orders. Bentley, at this period, was but twenty.

Not long after this disappointment, he undertook the charge of a school at Spalding, in Lincolnshire. His residence in this place was probably of short continuance, as he was recommended, by his college, to Dean Stillingfleet, as tutor to his son, who had been admitted pensioner of St. John's College, in 1677. Bentley took his degree of Master of Arts in July, 1683, and then resided some time with his pupil, at Oxford, where he devoted a large portion of his attention to the examination of manuscripts in the Bodleian Library, which offered to his view an inexhaustible mine of intellectual treasures.

His natural inclination for critical disquisition discovered itself at a very early period. Before he was twenty-four years of age he had written an Hexapla, in a large quarto volume. The first column of this work contained all the words in the Hebrew Bible, and in the other five columns he wrote the Chaldee, Syriac, and vulgar Latin interpretations, as well as those of the Septuagint, of Aquila, Symmachus, and of Theodosian. He resolved to derive his knowledge of Hebrew from the ancient versions, and not from the more modern Rabbins ; and in order to facilitate the execution of this plan, and to enable him to compose such a work, he must have perused the whole Polyglott, except the Arabic, Persic, and Ethiopic versions.

At the same time he filled another quarto volume with various readings, drawn from the old translations, which might have made a second part to the *Critica sacra* of Capellus, if it had been published.

About the year 1790, he became domestick chaplain to the Bishop of Worcester, the education of whose son he had superintended. He resided fourteen years with this right reverend patron, whose esteem he enjoyed in a high degree, while he held a correspondence with the literati of every nation.

His character now ranked high in the estimation of all his learned countrymen ; and in 1691, his first publication established his reputation beyond dispute. A fragment of a Chronography written by John of Antioch, surnamed Malala, had been discovered in the Bodleian Library, in manuscript, and was preparing for publication, by the learned Humphry Hody, of Wadham College. On this occasion, at the desire of Lloyd, Bishop of St. Asaph, Bentley reperused this work, and in a Latin epistle, addressed to Dr. Mill, he published critical observations on several Greek authors, particularly on those quoted by Malala ; and corrected the passages which had been corrupted by the carelessness of that writer, or the imperfection of the manuscript.

This epistle was subjoined to the Chronography, which was published in February, 1692, with a Latin translation and notes, by Chilmead, and a dissertation on the author, by Hody.

This first production of Bentley stamped a lustre on his reputation, which the cavils of his enemies, and the sneers of the ignorant could not efface from the minds of the *learned few*, in England, and on the continent. He was now numbered among the most eminent scholars of the age, and his Epistle was read and quoted on every occasion.

He was now introduced to publick notice, by the trustees of the Honourable Robert Boyle, who appointed him the first preacher of the Lecture, instituted by that great man's will, to vindicate the great fundamentals of natural and revealed religion, against the alarming attacks of Atheism. He was only thirty years of age, and had not taken priests' orders, when he delivered the first lecture, at St. Martin's Church, March 7th, 1692.

He was recommended in the strongest terms to the trustees, by Bishop Stillingfleet and Bishop Lloyd. The splendid abilities which he displayed in the execution of this office justified the choice, and the recommendation. All his successors have built upon the foundation which he laid.

During this period, he maintained a philosophical correspondence with Sir Isaac Newton. The dearest friendship subsisted between them, and he composed his sermons with that great man's approbation. In these discourses he proved the folly of the atheists with respect to the present life, and the incapacity of matter and motion to think. He confuted their assertions by considering the faculties of the soul, the structure and origin of the human body, and the origin and frame of the world, while he applied the mathematical principles of his friend Newton to evidence the being of a God.

These lectures were originally published at the desire of the trustees, and have been reprinted several times, as well as translated in many foreign languages. Their merit is not confined, or local: they are as well known on the continent, as in England. If they have any fault, it is the frequent witticisms with which they are interspersed. We have sometimes suspected, that he wished to imitate South, whose compositions are frequently too jocose for the pulpit. There is an astronomical error in one of the discourses, which was pointed out by Keil.

To the friendly assistance, or rather counsel, which he received from the learned philosopher, he was justly entitled. By the advice of Bentley, and by his earnest solicitations, Sir Isaac was induced to publish his *Principia*. So great was the diffidence of this eminent man, that he was fearful of trusting his immortal labours to the scrutinizing eye of the critick. The importunity of the friend, however, prevailed; and conquered his natural diffidence. To these repeated and urgent instigations the world was indebted for the early publication of that invaluable performance.

On the 2d of October, 1692, Bentley was installed a prebendary of Worcester, by his patron Bishop Stillingfleet; and when the death of Mr. Justel vacated the place of Royal Librarian, at St. James's, he was appointed his successor. A warrant was issued from the Secretary's Office for that purpose, in December, 1693, and he received his patent in April following. His active management was fully proved, as soon as he was instituted into his new office; for he recovered above a thousand volumes, of various kinds, and different values, which had been withheld from the King's collection of books, in defiance of the act of parliament, with orders, that a copy of every work which is entered at the Hall of the Stationer's company shall be transmitted to the Royal Library, as well as to those of every university in England and Scotland.

This appointment may be deemed one of the greatest misfortunes of Bentley's life, as it engaged him in a dispute with Mr. Boyle, which created him a legion of enemies, who continued for a long course of years to load him with abuse.

Mr. Boyle was a young man of family, fortune, and abilities. Of course his followers were numerous. Bentley stood alone. He singly, however, sustained the attacks of his adversaries, and while he proved the justice of his cause, shewed himself their equal in wit and genius, in learning and argument.

The opinions of the literary world have long decided in favour of Bentley. We shall, however, give an account of this grand controversy, as it may justly be considered as an event of the first magnitude in the life which we are now writing, and may prove

“ What dire effects from trivial causes spring !”

At the desire of Dr. Aldrich, Dean of Christ-Church, Mr. Boyle undertook the publication of a new edition of Phalaris; and as he wished to consult a manuscript of the epistles, which was in the king's library, he commissioned Mr. Bennet, a bookseller, to apply in his name to Bentley, who had very lately entered upon his office. The book was delivered to the messenger; but as the librarian was going into Worcestershire, a few days after, he insisted upon having the manuscript returned.

Bennet affirmed, that he received the book, after a solicitation of several months, and that it was taken from him by the librarian (who disparaged the work and the editor, in his conversation), although he had informed him, that the examination was not completed. These assertions were partly refuted, and partly contradicted.

The Epistles were published in 1694. The preface, by Mr. Boyle, gave an account of the edition, and when he mentioned *this* manuscript, said, that the collation could not be carried farther than the fortieth Letter, because the book was taken away, by *the singular kindness* of the librarian.

A few days before the publick sale of Phalaris, Bentley, by accident, saw a copy in the hands of a person, to whom it had been presented. As soon as he had read the preface, he wrote an account of the affair to Mr. Boyle, in hopes that he would order the leaf which contained the charge to be reprinted. An answer was returned, couched in very civil terms, but saying, that the story had been written according to Mr. Bennet's representation; that he was hurt at the refusal of the manuscript, but that if he had been deceived, he should certainly acknowledge his error.

The book was disseminated, and the exceptionable passage remained unaltered.

In this situation the affair rested for near three years, during which time, in 1696, Bentley was admitted to his degree of Doctor in Divinity; and preached on the day of the publick commencement. His erudition was now so celebrated, that his advice was asked with regard to a new edition of some Roman Classicks, which were to be published at the University press, for the use of the Duke of Gloucester. He procured the types from Holland, with which these books were printed; and advised Laughton, to whom the Virgil was entrusted, to follow Heinsius. His ideas, however, did not coincide with those of the Doctor. Terence was published by Leng; Horace by Talbot; and Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, by Mr. Annesley, who was afterwards Earl of Anglesey.

While the Cambridge press was engaged in printing these splendid editions, in 1697, Dr. Bentley published his Dissertation on the Epistles of Themistocles, Socrates, Euripides, Phalaris, and the Fables of Esop. This work was added to a new edition of Wotton's Reflections on ancient and modern Learning.

The injury which he had received in the preface to Phalaris was not forgotten. In this dissertation, he defended himself against the charges of Bennet, and asserted that the Epistles which had been attributed, for so many centuries, to the Tyrant of Agrigentum, were spurious, and the production of some sophist. Mr. Boyle was attacked for employing his time in in the publication of so contemptible an author, and accused of degrading a miserable performance, by a bad edition.

In the course of this year, the learned Grevius published his edition of Callimachus, which was enriched with the notes and animadversions of Dr. Bentley, as well as with his collection of the fragments of that poet.

This new edition of Wotton's Reflections appeared just as Mr. Boyle was setting out for Ireland; and the urgency of his business prevented his writing an immediate answer. In the following year, however, he published an examination of this dissertation, in which he attempted to vindicate the Epistles of Phalaris, and the Fables of Esop, from the charges of Bentley, and to prove their authenticity.

This once famous book, which was perused with such raptures by the learned and the unlearned, is now disregarded.

It is still to be found in the libraries of the curious; but, although the book contains some learning, and much wit, it is rarely mentioned; and the highest praise that can be justly bestowed on Mr. Boyle's labours, is, that they occasioned a republication, with large additions, of the immortal dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris.

This work, in its improved state, appeared in 1699. His adversary now began to feel the strength of those powers which he had slighted; and in order to animate a dying cause, many engines were employed to overturn Dr. Bentley's reputation. Several pamphlets were published: sarcastick reflections were substituted in the place of sound argument. He was accused of plagiary. It was asserted that his observations on Callimachus were borrowed almost wholly from Stanley.

Some people of consequence appeared in the lists against him. Smalridge wrote a burlesque parody on the dissertation, in order to prove that Bentley was not the author of it, by the same arguments which the Doctor had employed to evince that the Epistles of Phalaris were spurious.

King, the author of the Journey to London, ridiculed him and his performance, in some "Dialogues of the Dead;" which, in his preface, he says were the production of a gentleman at Padua, and written by him, on account of the character which he had received of a troublesome critick, whose name was *Bentivoglio.* In these dialogues there is a small portion of wit, but little genius; and it can hardly be supposed, that the cause could be much aided by so trifling a performance.

Dr. Johnson, in his life of King, has mentioned his engaging in this dispute, in the following manner: "In 1697, he mingled in the controversy between Boyle and Bentley; and was one of those who tried what wit could perform in opposition to learning." King's Dialogues of the Dead, however, were not published before 1699.

Garth mentioned both the opponents in his Dispensary.

"So diamonds take a lustre from their foil,
And to a Bentley 'tis we owe a Boyle!"

Some of the wicked wits, even in his own university, drew the Doctor's picture, with the guards of Phalaris preparing to thrust him into the bull. In Bentley's mouth they put a label, on which was written, "I would rather be ROASTED, than BOYLED."

In the Tale of a Tub, Swift ridiculed our great critick and in the Battle of the Books, he has described Bentley and Wotton defending each other, side by side, until they were both transfixed by Mr. Boyle's triumphant javelin.

Bentley, indeed, stood almost single in the controversy. While Boyle, who was a young man of great expectations and brilliant parts, was assisted by the wits, and by the Literati, while the Learned and the Ingenious enlisted under his banner, Bentley, by choice, remained independent. Several of his friends at Cambridge offered their assistance. The Doctor, however, resolutely rejected their overtures. He was well acquainted with the justice of his cause, and knew that he might rely on the vigour of his own abilities. Several passages in Mr. Boyle's book, even his own friends had deemed unanswerable. They were shown to Bentley. He immediately confuted them, and "unveiled the latent errors." As soon, indeed, as he had perused the answer, he openly declared, that the whole was equally liable to objections.

The voice of the people, for some years, supported the assertions of Boyle, and his adherents. But the obstinacy of prejudice at length gave way, and the Learned became unanimous in their opinion. It is scarcely necessary to remark, that the decision was against the Epistles of Phalaris.

To be continued.

REMARKER. №. 9.

Illud γνῶθι σεαυτὸν noli putare ad arrogantiam minuendam, solum dictum, verùm, ut bona nostra norimus. CICERO.

THE Remarker does not mean to confine himself to literary topicks, but will occasionally lash those foibles, which though they are neither punished as crimes by the severe hand of justice, or as vices are censured from the pulpit, yet tend to undermine the props of social intercourse. He has chosen egotism for the subject of the present paper.

Egotism claims his descent from Vanity and Pride. To an inordinate desire of applause and a too great esteem for himself, which he inherits from his parents, he adds the desire of being the sole object of thought and consideration wherever he is. With the sensibility of Vanity, but without the firmness of Pride, he shrinks from every wholesome truth; and prefers the flattering applause of the worthless, to the silent esteem of the good. Great pains were taken in his education, particularly by Vanity, and he was sent into the world, as soon as he arrived at the age of manhood, to create a new order of beings. He has not been idle in executing his commission, for few of the present race but can trace some affinity to this ancestor. Several of my acquaintance quarter his arms, and their features too strongly resemble their great progenitor to need the herald's office to prove them genuine heirs.

These gentlemen are ever eager to impress strangers with an idea of their own importance, and I seldom recollect meeting them in a tavern or a stage coach, where all enter as equals, that they did not attempt superiority, by informing us of their great connexions, their own consequence, and their large concerns; and, by retailing the hacknied observations of others, endeavour to make us suppose them as familiar with the most noted parts of either continent, as with the vicinity of their own town. Raised upon this scaffolding they may sometimes succeed in exciting a momentary gaze, but it is seldom sufficient to support the weight of the giant, who presses upon it; and when it sinks under him, he falls beneath the contempt of those, who would have respected him as an equal. Occasional applause, far from satiating an egotist, only makes him more eager to show his imagined superiority. He resembles himself to the sun, before whose effulgence the smaller luminaries hide their diminished heads, and those, who are not dazzled by his splendour, he regards as prying philosophers, unable to gaze on his brightness by their own powers, but eager to find by artificial means every dark spot, and maliciously proclaim it to the world, with a suggestion, that ere long his fire shall be consumed, and universal darkness cover his whole disc. With these ideas he expects an implicit assent to every thing he utters; and flatters himself, that, in sounding forth his own merits, he is pouring instruction into minds eager to receive it. For Egotism, though at first but a small seed, yet, cultivated by doating parents and submissive dependents, soon becomes so large a tree, that every fleeting folly may rest thereon. I have known a lady deprived of pleasure for a whole evening, when her new headdress had passed unnoticed; a wit retire chagrined, when he was the only person who laughed at a pun, he had been the whole day studying; and Rosa, with tears in her eyes, vows we have no taste, because she has heard a whisper, while she was exhibiting her powers of execution in musick. People go more into society to display themselves and their talents, than to gain instruction; but as no society will suffer an equal to engross all its honours and pleasures, an egotist is obliged to resort to persons of inferiour talents; and he delights to astonish his Lilliputian companions by a display of his own wonderful powers. But a man will always approach towards the level of his associates; and low company generally bespeaks a degraded mind. The pleasure we receive from the perusal of the works of Richardson cannot prevent our turning away with disgust, when we see him avoid the society of men of learning, and delight in being surrounded like an Asiatick prince by a crowd of dependent women, who would continually offer incense to his vanity. If egotists would confine themselves to their inferiours, their folly would be harmless; but they frequently endeavour to assume the same manners among their equals and superiours.

From the long intimacy that has subsisted between my family and Mr. Puff's, I frequently meet him in society; and although there are many good points in his character, yet by always endeavouring to make himself the only object of importance, he is universally shunned, as the destroyer of social pleasure. Dining in company with him lately, the conversation turned upon the relative political situation of our country to Europe. Puff appeared uneasy for a moment's pause to put in a word; but at length, being unable longer to bear restraint, he interrupted one of our first political characters by directly contradicting him. Having silenced opposition, he undertook to lay open to our view the inmost recesses of the labyrinth of politicks, although his hearers did not perceive the connexion between the compliments that Mr. Puff had received at St. Cloud or Madrid, and the political state of France and Spain. As when the leader of a nocturnal riot, exulting at having beaten down the watch, perceives himself deserted; and that those he deemed his friends, ashamed of his outrage, had ranged themselves on the side of his adversary, stands motionless with rage and terror; so stood our hero, when he saw every ear attentive to his vanquished rival, and no one listening to his harangue. Soon after the conversation turned upon agriculture, when my friend Puff determined to be revenged, and immediately informed us, that there were no cattle worth raising in the country, but from his breed; and said so much of his improvements in agriculture, that a stranger would have supposed every thing valuable in that art had been introduced here by him. This speech was only received with a contemptuous smile, which so disconcerted Puff, that taking out his watch, he remembered an engagement at that hour, and instantly retired.

But Puff's felicity is at moments unbounded. When surrounded by a crowd of inferiours, who flock to his table for his dinners or the credit of visiting him, no peacock spreading his gaudy tail, and strutting among barn-door fowl, swells with more delight; and the smile of ecstacy remains on his cheek, while he relates his own adventures, and the homage that has been paid to his superiour merit. At that moment, benevolence would forbid, that the smooth current should be ruffled by a single pebble.

Not long since, I met with another striking instance of egotism in young Chalmers, who has lost the good will of his best friends by a constant inattention to any, but his own feelings. According to the custom of our town, he called to pay a visit of condolence to a lady who had just lost her husband; but unhappily with a face so full of mirth and jollity, that the lady has never recovered the shock it gave her; and soon after he appeared at a wedding with woe and misery depicted in his countenance; but in neither instance from a design to insult the feelings of his friends. He afterwards paid his addresses to a young lady of fortune; but, when the preliminaries were nearly arranged, an unfortunate incident broke off the match. Having been made lieutenant of an independent company, the first day he wore his regimentals, he called to see his Dulcinea; who was at that instant bewailing a beautiful and cherished lock, she had lost in the morning, from the awkwardness of her perruquier. His feelings were tuned too high to accord with her spirits; and as he could not lower them, discord was the consequence. He treated her misfortune with contempt, and observed that a few shillings would more than replace the loss. The lady had already borne too much, she therefore informed him, that she had always thought he could love no one but himself, that she was now convinced of it, and begged never to see him more; and though this affair was made up by the intercession of friends, similar ones soon occurred, which made the breach irreparable.

Egotism has been supposed indigenous to our soil; if so, it is the lofty hemlock of our forests, whose slender roots cannot support its towering head against the rude blasts of winter, but overthrown it lies forgotten, and gives place to more useful trees.

To the Editors of the Monthly Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

I send you the following Inscription on the monument, erected to the memory of Sir William Phipps, in St. Mary Woolnoth church, London, for preservation in the Anthology.

Your humble servant, J.

"NEAR this place is interred the body of Sir *William Phipps*, Knight; who in the year 1687, by his great Industry, discovered among the Rocks, near the Banks of *Bahama*, on the N. Side of *Hispaniola*, a *Spanish* Plateship, which had been under water 44 years, out of which he took in Gold and Silver to the value of 300000l. Sterling; and with a Fidelity equal to his conduct, brought it all to *London*, where it was divided between himself, and the rest of the Adventurers: for which great Service he was knighted by his then Majesty King *James* the 2d; and afterward, by the Command of his present Majesty, and at the request of the Principal Inhabitants of *New England*, he accepted of the Government of the *Massachusetts*, in which he continued to the time of his Death, and discharged his Trust with that Zeal for the interest of his Country, and with so little regard to his own private Advantage that he justly gained the good Esteem and Affection of the greatest and best part of the Inhabitants of that Colony.

He died the 18th of February, 1694. And his Lady to perpetuate his Memory, hath caused this Monument to be erected."

POETRY.

ORIGINAL.

For the Anthology.

The following lines were written by Mr. Henry Joy, (nephew of a gentleman in Boston) who is pronounced by the friend who communicated them to us to be "truly a most excellent scholar." He is one of three Etonians who lately published the "Miniature," a periodical work which was favourably received by the publick, as evincing a wonderful maturity of knowledge and of taste in school boys. The young gentleman has since entered the university at Oxford, and this poem was written in his first term, and gained the prize.

Χειρων δικαιοτατος Κενταυρος.

QUI sævos inter comites probitatis et æqui
Assiduus fautor, sub quo præcepta magistro
Hausere Heroes, sua qui mitescere sæc'la
Edocuit, carum Graiis Chirona poetis;
Sit mihi fas etiam tenui celebrare Camœna.
Hospitii immemorem mali dignum Ixiona cœlo,
Quum falsâ illusit Junonis imagine nubes,
Progenuisse novo Centauros fertur amore
Durum immane genus: quos inter magna refulsit
Saturni et Philyræ tanto splendore propago,
Quanto alias terræ glebas supereminet aurum
Corpore semifero natus, sed mente animoque
Concipiens divum numen, neque nomine solum
Nec genitore viget, sed stirpe perennius omni
Ipse sui fortis monumentum condit honoris.

Anne igitur mirum tanti quum pondere laudes
Fert animus, nimiæ si pondus materiæ
Turbat et incertum cohibet? redolentibus Hyblæ
Qualis ubi arbustis, vel odori qualis *Hymetti*

Mollis apem huc illuc volitantem copia lasset.
Queis etenim studiis, qua non inclaruit arte
Phillyrides? Nemorum sapiens tranquilla recessu
Tempora fallebat; rudia inter sêcla Minervæ
Usque vacans, ausus quali per inane meatu
Sidera volvuntur scrutari atq.; orbibus orbes
Mente sequi implicitos; citharæ modo pollice chordas
Divino pulsante, melos per amæna vireta
Fundere suaviloquum, cujus dulcedine captæ,
His latebris Helicona novem potuere sorores
Posthabuisse suum. Ipse etiam cœlestia Apollo
Dona illi, et varios facilis superaddidit artes.
Scire potestates herbarum et pocula docta
Nempe dedit miscere manu; stillantia tabo
Vulnera lenire, et requiem cruciata dolori
Queis membra inveniunt succos inspergere molles
Neve pharetratâ sileam concessa Diana
Spicula Chironi; quo non solertior alter
Correptum validis arcum incurvare lacertis,
Hortarive canes, aut prædam agitare fugacem.

Ergo etiam studiis juveniles fingere alumnos
Cordi erat, et multos quoniam cultura per annos
Pectora ditârat, fructum impertire laboris.
Magnos inde animos et quot virtutibus ætas,
Fertilis heroum genuit; stimulante citati
Non nisi Chironis summa ad fastigia honorum
Pervenere manu et mortali *immunia* fato.
Impiger his tribuit prolongæ tempora vitæ.
Sic etiam Antilochus, nequaquam ignobilis, illum
Præceptorem habuit, patrem qui Nestora plenâ
Imbuerat sophiâ; quo præceptore disertus
Consilia eloquium atque omnes quascunque trahebat
Mentis opes; ....simul et decus et munimen *Achivis*.
Sic Anchisiades et cui sua fortiter arma
Apposuit, clarus Diomedes marte, peritum
Excoluere senem: et belli Diomedis labores
Qui serio prudens præferre solebat Ulysses.

Castora quid dicam, quid fratrem Castoris undas
Sistere bellorum mirando et amore celebres?
Quid dicam Alcidem? Cujus super æthera latè
Fama volat; cujus seros memoranda per annos
Facta deûm adjunxere choris, cœloq. locarunt.
Teque, Coronides centauri hos inter alumnos
Phœbigena; haud magni Soboles indigna parentis:
Cui dedit ardentem morborum aut vulneris æstum
Arte salutari mollire; animamque fugacem,
Pallentes Erebi quum jam prope contigit oras,
Cunctatum stabilire et vix non solvere fato.

Ipse etiam docilem Chironi præbuit aurem
Impiger Æacides ......Ea gloria prima Pelasgis,
Hectoris exitium, Trojæ populator, Homero
Cui celebratus honor contemnit fata, magistrum
Chirona extimuit: Chironis jussa facessens,
Qui manu eversas populorum diruit arces.
Nomen Achilleum, et modo visa expalluit arma
Ilion, at sacræ monitis tamen ille senectæ
Paruit haud signis; generoso hinc pectus honesto
Imbutum, hinc famæ, vitam qui projecit ardor,
Eja age, si quis honor Pelidem impellere ad arma,
Atq. opera illius sua ritè vocavit Ulysses;
Quæ me promeruit, quo dignus nomini tantum
Pelidem; heroüm tantum qui protulit agmen;
Ora silent, animus decus ingens contemplando
Perculsus cælo cumulatis laudibus æquat

Attamen hunc tandem, qui clarum extollere lumen,
E tenebris primus potuit, tela illita viro

Lernæ violant, miserisq: doloribus angunt.
Adgemuit teli infandam quum viderat ansam
Amphitryoniades; per et alta cacumina montes
Hæmonii, et saltus, arva et quæcunq- Boötes
Lustrat Hyperboreus latè adgemuere cavernis;
Et novus in medio sylvis nigrantibus horror.

Ille quidem immisso jam corde dolore subactus,
Supplice voce Jovem implorat, quæ mortis adempta est
Conditio ut reddat, vitæ neque damnet amaræ.

Hisce favens precibus summi moderator Olympi
Annuit, et liquido Chiron micat æthera Sydus.

Oxon. 1804.

For the Anthology.

LINES

OCCASIONED BY THE DEATH OF A YOUNG LADY.

YE soft-eyed maids, whose vernal charms display
The opening sweets of youth's unclouded day:
The bright suffusions of whose cheeks declare,
No canker saps the blooming roses there:
Whose soften'd hearts no ruder passions move,
Than the sweet tumults of incipient love:
Come, go with me, and deck the earthy bed,
Where lovely Mary slumbers with the dead!

For she, like you, was innocent and gay,
And love's bright visions bless'd her early day:
And she, like you, possess'd each virgin grace,
Which love can fancy, or the Muses trace.

And come, ye youths, who in the festive throng,
Late tripp'd with her the sprightly dance along:
You who have listen'd to her accents mild,
And glowed with ſoft devotion, when she smil'd:
You who have felt the magick of her eye,
And breath'd, unconſcious, the delicious sigh:
O! come with us, and weave a garland meet
To deck our Mary's hallowed, last retreat.

Daughters of grief, who in life's roseate dawn,
Mark'd sorrow's chilling clouds o'ercast the morn:
From whose wan cheek the early rose is fled,
And withering lilies hang the drooping head:
With willows fresh your fading brows entwine,
And go with us to deck a sister's shrine.

Come, come, and to the woodlands we'll away,
And gather all the sweetest flowers of May:
Nor dash the glistening dew-drop from the leaf;
Let it remain, chaste emblem of our grief.
And when we've cull'd each choicest flower, and rare,
Sad, with our fragrant sweets, we will repair
To deck the grave, at sober evening's close,
Where Beauty, Love, and Innocence repose.

May, 1806.

SELECTED.

CANTATA.

By Matthew Prior.

RECIT.

BENEATH a verdant laurel's ample ſhade,
His lyre to mournful numbers ſtrung,
Horace, immortal Bard, ſupinely laid,
To Venus thus addreſs'd the ſong:
Ten thouſand little Loves around,
Listening, dwelt on every ſound.

ARIET.

Potent Venus, bid thy ſon
Sound no more his dire alarms.
Youth on ſilent wings is flown:
Graver years come rolling on.
Spare my age, unfit for arms:
Safe and humble let me reſt,
From all amorous care releas'd.
Potent Venus, bid thy ſon
Sound no more his dire alarms.

RECIT.

Yet, Venus, why do I each morn prepare
The fragrant wreath for Cloe's hair!
Why do I all day lament and ſigh,
Unleſs the beauteous maid be nigh?
And why all night purſue her in my dreams,
Through flowery meads and cryſtal ſtreams?

RECIT.

Thus ſung the Bard; and thus the Goddeſs ſpoke:
Submiſſive bow to Love's imperious yoke:
Every ſtate, and every age,
Shall own my rule, and fear my rage:
Compell'd by me, thy Muſe ſhall prove,
That all the world was born to love.

ARIET.

Bid thy deſtin'd lyre diſcover
Soft deſire and gentle pain:
Often praiſe, and always love her:
Through her ear her heart obtain.
Verſe ſhall pleaſe, and ſighs ſhall move her;
Cupid does with Phœbus reign.

THE CAVE.

By J. Macpherson, Esq.

THE wind is up, the field is bare;
Some hermit lead me to his cell,
Where Contemplation, lonely fair,
With blessed Content has chose to dwell.

Behold! it opens to my sight,
Dark in the rock; beside the flood;
Dry fern around obstructs the light;
The winds above it move the wood.

Reflected in the lake I see
The downward mountains and the skies,
The flying bird, the waving tree,
The goats that on the hills arise.

The grey-cloaked herd drives on the cow,
The slow-paced fowler walks the heath;
A freckled pointer scours the brow;
A musing shepherd stands beneath.

Curve o'er the ruin of an oak,
The woodman lifts his axe on high,
The hills re-echo to the stroke;
I see, I see the shivers fly.

Some rural maid, with apron full,
Brings fuel to the homely flame;
I see the smoky columns roll,
And through the chinky hut the beam.

Beside a stone o'ergrown with moss,
Two well-met hunters talk at ease;
Three panting dogs beside repose;
One bleeding deer is stretched on grass.

A lake, at distance, spreads to sight,
Skirted with shady forests round,
In midst an island's rocky height
Sustains a ruin once renowned.

One tree bends o'er the naked waſte,
Two broad-winged eagles hover nigh,
By intervals a fragment falls,
As blows the blast along the sky.

Two rough-spun hinds the pinnace guide,
With lab'ring oars, along the flood;
An angler, bending o'er the tide,
Hangs from the boat th' insidious wood.

Beside the flood, beneath the rocks,
On grassy bank two lovers lean;
Bend on each other amorous looks,
And seem to laugh and kiss between.

The wind is rustling in the oak;
They seem to hear the tread of feet;
They start, they rise, look round the rock;
Again they smile, again they meet.

But see! the grey mist from the lake
Ascends upon the shady hills;
Dark storms the murmuring forests shake,
Rain beats,—resound a hundred rills.

To Damon's homely hut I fly;
I see it smoking o'er the plain;
When storms are past,—and fair the sky,
I'll often seek my cave again.

A FUNERAL HYMN.

By Mallet.

YE midnight ſhades, o'er nature spread!
Dumb silence of the dreary hour!
In honour of th' approaching dead,
Around your awful terrors pour.
Yes, pour around,
On this pale ground,
Through all this deep surrounding gloom,
The sober thought,
The tear untaught,
Those meetest mourners at a tomb.

Lo! as the surplic'd train drew near
To this last mansion of mankind,
The slow sad bell, the sable bier,
In holy musing wrap the mind!
And while their beam,
With trembling ſtream,
Attending tapers faintly dart;
Each mould'ring bone,
Each sculptur'd stone,
Strikes mute instruction to the heart!

Now let the sacred organ blow,
With solemn pause, and sounding slow;
Now let the voice due measure keep,
In strains that sigh, and words that weep;
Till all the vocal current blended roll,
Not to depress, but lift the soaring soul:

To lift it in the Maker's praise,
Who first inform'd our frame with breath,
And, after some few stormy days,
Now, gracious, gives us o'er to death.
No King of Fears
In him appears,
Who ſhuts the ſcene of human woes:
Beneath his ſhade
Securely laid,
The dead alone find true repose.

Then, while we mingle dust with dust,
To One, supremely good and wise,
Raise hallelujahs! God is just,
And man most happy when he dies!
His winter past,
Fair spring at last
Receives him on her flowery shore;
Where pleasure's rose
Immortal blows,
And sin and sorrow are no more!

EULOGY ON LAUGHING.

By J. M. Sewall.

Delivered at an exhibition, by a young lady.

LIKE merry Momus, while the Gods were quaffing,
I come—to give an eulogy on laughing!
True, courtly Cheſterfield, with critick zeal,
Aſſerts that laughing's vaſtly ungenteel!
The boiſt'rous ſhake, he ſays, diſtorts fine faces,
And robs each pretty feature of the graces!
But yet this paragon of perfect taſte,
On other topicks was not over-chaſte;
He like the Phariſees in this appears,
They ruin'd widows, but they made long pray'rs.
Tithe, aniſe, mint, they zealouſly affected,
But the law's weightier matters lay neglected;
And while an inſect ſtrains their ſqueamiſh caul,
Down goes a monſtrous camel—bunch and all.

Yet others, quite as ſage, with warmth diſpute
Man's riſibles diſtinguiſh him from brute;
While inſtinct, reaſon, both in common own,
To laugh is man's prerogative alone!

Hail, roſy laughter! thou deſerv'ſt the bays!
Come, with thy dimples, animate theſe lays,
Whilſt univerſal peals atteſt thy praiſe.
Daughter of Joy! thro' thee we health attain,
When Eſculapian recipes are vain.

Let ſentimentaliſts ring in our ears
The tender joy of grief—the luxury of tears—
Heraclitus may whine, and oh! and ah!—
I like an honeſt, hearty, ha, hah, hah!
It makes the wheels of nature gliblier play;
Dull care ſuppreſſes; ſmooths life's thorny way;
Propels the dancing current thro' each vein;
Braces the nerves; corroborates the brain;
Shakes ev'ry muſcle, and throws off the ſpleen.

Old Homer makes yon tenants of the ſkies,
His Gods, love laughing as they did their eyes!
It kept them in good humour, huſh'd their ſquabbles,
As froward children are appeas'd by baubles;
Ev'n Jove, the thund'rer, dearly lov'd a laugh,
When, of fine nectar, he had taken a quaff!
It helps digeſtion when the feaſt runs high,
And diſſipates the fumes of potent Burgundy.

But, in the main, tho' laughing I approve,
It is not ev'ry kind of laugh I love;
For many laughs e'en candour muſt condemn!
Some are too full of acid, ſome of phlegm;
The loud horſe-laugh (improperly ſo ſtil'd,)
The ideot ſimper, like the ſlumb'ring child,
Th' affected laugh, to ſhew a dimpled chin,
The ſneer contemptuous, and broad vacant grin,
Are deſpicable all, as Strephon's ſmile,
To ſhew his ivory legions, rank and file.

The honeſt laugh, unſtudied, unacquir'd,
By nature prompted, and true wit inſpir'd,
Such as Quin felt, and Falſtaff knew before,
When humour ſet the table on a roar;
Alone deſerves th' applauding muſe's grace!
The reſt—is all contortion and grimace.
But you exclaim, "Your Eulogy's too dry;
"Leave diſſertation and exemplify!
"Prove, by experiment, your maxims true;
"And, what you praiſe ſo highly, make us do."

In truth I hop'd this was already done,
And Mirth and Momus had the laurel won!
Like honeſt Hodge, unhappy ſhould I fail,
Who to a crowded audience told his tale,
And laugh'd and ſnigger'd all the while himſelf
To grace the ſtory, as he thought, poor elf!
But not a ſingle ſoul his ſuffrage gave—
While each long phiz was ſerious as the grave!

Laugh! laugh! cries Hodge, laugh loud! (a halſing)
I thought you all, ere this, would die with laughing!
This did the feat; for, tickled at the whim,
A burſt of laughter, like the electrick beam,
Shook all the audience—but it was at him!
Like Hodge, ſhould ev'ry ſtratagem and whim
Thro' my long ſtory, not excite a ſmile,
I'll bear it with becoming modeſty;
But ſhould my feeble efforts move your glee,
Laugh, if you fairly can—but not at ME!

AN EPITAPH.

By Prior.

" *Stet cuicunque volet potens*
" *Aulæ culmine lubrico,*" &c. SENEC.

INTERR'D beneath this marble ſtone
Lie ſauntering Jack and idle Joan.
While rolling threeſcore years and one
Did round this globe their courſes run;
If human things went ill or well,
If changing empires roſe or fell,
The morning paſt, the evening came,
And found this couple ſtill the ſame.
They walk'd, and eat, goods folks: what then?
Why then they walk'd and eat again:
They ſoundly ſlept the night away;
They did juſt nothing all the day:
And, having bury'd children four,
Would not take pains to try for more.
Nor ſiſter either had nor brother;
They ſeem'd juſt tally'd for each other.
Their moral and œconomy
Moſt perfectly they made agree:
Each virtue kept its proper bound,
Nor treſpaſs'd on the other's ground.
Nor fame nor cenſure they regarded;
They neither puniſh'd nor rewarded.
He car'd not what the footman did;
Her maids ſhe neither prais'd nor chid;
So every ſervant took his courſe;
And, bad at firſt, they all grew worſe.
Slothful diſorder fill'd his ſtable,
And ſluttiſh plenty deck'd her table.
Their beer was ſtrong; their wine was port;
Their meal was large; their grace was ſhort.
They gave the poor the remnant meat,
Juſt when it grew not fit to eat.
They paid the church and pariſh rate,
And took, but read not, the receipt;
For which they claim their Sunday's due,
Of ſlumbering in an upper pew.
No man's defects ſought they to know;
So never made themſelves a foe.
No man's good deeds did they commend;
So never rais'd themſelves a friend.
Nor cheriſh'd they relations poor,
That might decreaſe their preſent ſtore:
Nor barn nor houſe did they repair;
That might oblige their future heir.
They neither added nor confounded;
They neither wanted nor abounded:
Each Chriſtmas they accompts did clear,
And wound their bottom round the year:
Nor tear nor ſmile did they employ
At news of publick grief or joy:
When bells were rung, and bonfires made,
If aſk'd, they ne'er deny'd their aid:
Their jug was to the ringers carried,
Whoever either died or married.
Their billet at the fire was found,
Whoever was depos'd or crown'd.
Nor good, nor bad, nor fools, nor wiſe;
They would not learn, nor could adviſe;
Without love, hatred, joy, or fear,
They led—a kind of—as it were:
Nor wiſh'd, nor car'd, nor laugh'd, nor cried
And ſo they liv'd, and ſo they died.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

FOR *MAY*, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ART. 19.

One God in one person only; and Jesus Christ a distinct being from God, maintained and defended. By John Sherman, pastor of the first church in Mansfield, (Con.) Worcester. I. Thomas, jun. 1805. 8*vo*. *pp*. 198.

WHEN we saw this book announced, we knew not whether its appearance was to be deprecated as a signal of theological warfare, or whether it should be hailed as the harbinger of awakened learning, inquiry, and industry among our clergy. Though the trinitarian controversy has now existed more than sixteen centuries, and was kept up in England during the whole of the last age with little intermission, first with the Arians, and afterwards with the Socinians, yet we believe that the present treatise is one of the first acts of direct hostility against the orthodox, which has ever been committed on these western shores. Coming so late as Mr. S. now must to the scene of action, he can hope to attack or to defend only with weapons stripped from the bodies of the slain, who are heaped in heavy piles on the field of theological disputation.

The present work, we observe, is not written to establish any new opinion respecting the character of Christ, but is confined merely to a denial of his deity in general, and the received doctrine of the trinity in particular. In the following review we shall endeavour to give an impartial account of the work; to correct any palpable errours of fact; occasionally to point out deficiencies; and sometimes to censure and sometimes to commend, without enlisting ourselves under the banners of Mr. Sherman or his antagonists.

In the introduction Mr. S., after some remarks on the speculative differences among christians, and the necessity of religious catholicism, prepares his reader for his occasional deviations from the received text and translation of the scriptures by vindicating the propriety of such alterations from the constant improvement in biblical criticism, from the history of our present English version, and lastly, from the authority of the Saybrook assembly, which declares, "that the originals of the Old and New Testament are the final resort in all cases of controversy." The occasion of publishing this work and the situation of the author are set forth in the following passage.

> My ſentiments becoming different, from thoſe believed and avowed at my ordination, honeſty compelled me frankly to declare them, notwithſtanding the evils, which the ſtate of the times gave me to foreſee, would undoubtedly be realized in conſequence. I have not been diſappointed.
>
> The publication of my ſentiments gave umbrage to the Original Aſſocia-

tion of Miniſters in the county of Windham; and they proceeded to expel me, on this account, not only from their body, as a voluntary Aſſociation, but from all "*miniſterial connexion.*"

It was my intention to have publiſhed a general ſtatement of the manner in which this affair was brought to its criſis. But for certain reaſons which I did not ſufficiently conſider, it is at preſent withheld. I would only obſerve, that, by the decree of the Aſſociation, or any decrees which, *as a body of mere Eccleſiaſticks, without appointment from the churches, without their ſanction, and without purſuing the regular diſcipline pointed out by our Lord*, they may aſſume the authority to make, I conſider my good chriſtian and miniſterial ſtanding not in the leaſt degree impaired. Were they an eccleſiaſtical court, known in the ſcriptures; had they charged me with crime, with a breach of the divine law to mankind; and were there any other kind of iniquity found cleaving to my garment, than that *I cannot ſee with their eyes, and perceive with their underſtandings*; I might conſider myſelf as affected by their deciſion. But, as the matter now ſtands, I feel the authority of the Lord Jeſus ſtill reſting upon me, and ſhall not deſert my miniſterial office. They, and others who ſhall ſubſcribe to their doings, may treat me according to their pleaſure: There is One that judgeth between us. To HIM ſhall the appeal be made.

The work is divided into two parts. In the first the author endeavours to shew "that the passages and considerations alleged in favour of the supreme and independent deity of Christ do not establish such doctrine concerning him."

In the first section, those passages are examined, which represent Christ as the *creator of all worlds*. These are John i. 1—14. Col. i. 16, 17. Heb. i. The proem to John's gospel has long been the *crux antitrinitarianorum*. They have agreed in nothing but to wrest it from the hands of the orthodox, but have never been able to convert it into an auxiliary. Though some of the early Polish Socinians thought they could apply all its high and obscure expressions to the entrance of Christ on his publick ministry, L. Crellius wasted an immensity of learning to make it probable that we should read θεου instead of θεος in the first verse; Clarke and the Arians are contented with affixing to θεος without the article a subordinate sense; the more modern Unitarians suppose that the word λογος does not here signify a person, but only an attribute of Deity, and that there is no unequivocal intimation of Christ till the 8th verse; and last of all, a critick, whose familiarity with scriptural phrases and terms is not inferiour to the knowledge of any of his predecessors, Newcome Cappe, has ventured to restore and vindicate the original interpretation of Socinus. Mr. S. adopts the most common explanation of the Unitarians, that by λογος is intended the reason, or wisdom of God, which the evangelist eloquently personifies. We find some remarks on the use of the preposition προς, and the word εκτισεν, which are not unimportant, and then are called to the famous passage in Col. i. 16, 17.

The difficulties, which attend the explanation of these verses, as referring to the new moral creation, or rather organization under the gospel, are not a few; and Mr. S. has in some degree injured the plausibility and compactness of his own interpretation by not sufficiently attending to the propriety of clearly referring all the clauses without exception either to one creation or the other. Hence we think he should have admitted no other interpretation of πρωτοτοκος της κτισεως than this, "first-born or most eminent of the whole creation;" in the same sense in which Christ is elsewhere styled "*first born among many brethren*," Rom. viii.

29. Mr. S. also argues in favour of the identity of the agency attributed to Christ in the 16th and in the 20th verses, from the use of the same preposition "by" in our English version; when he must have recollected, that in the original εν is used in the former, and δια in the latter clause. This variation, though it does not destroy the force of the argument, yet deserved to be noted. By "things in heaven" Mr. S. supposes are meant, Jews, and by "things in earth," Gentiles. The passages, quoted to illustrate this meaning of the words, certainly prove no such application; for though by "new heavens and new earth," in Isaiah, is probably intended the flourishing state of the christian church, in which Jews and Gentiles are included, we have never yet seen any passage which decisively shows, that Gentiles are ever described under the figure of the earth, or Jews under that of heaven.

In the second section are examined the proofs of Christ's *omnipotence*, which are usually drawn from the introduction to the epistle to the Hebrews. On this passage the author is unusually lucid; and congratulates himself on having derived from it "substantial and invincible evidence of the truth of his doctrine."

In the third section are considered the texts, which are supposed to teach the *omniscience* of Christ. Here we think the author quarrels unnecessarily with our English translation of. Rev. ii. 23. The expressions which he would substitute are not nearer to the original, than those which he condemns.

Section fourth contains a long quotation from Christie to explain John iii. 13. The author then endeavours, though with no peculiar ingenuity, to obviate the proofs from other texts of Christ's *omnipresence*. The passages which are adduced to prove the *eternity* and *immutability* of Christ are examined in the two next sections, and in the seventh the power which our Saviour exercised on earth of *forgiving sins* is discussed with much learning and acuteness. The distinction is pointed out between εξουσια and δυναμις; it is shown that the former, derived from εξεστι, *it is lawful*, conveys the idea of licence, legality, or a moral right to exercise authority; and that it is the word used by our Saviour to signify the power of forgiveness which he exercised on earth. It is afterwards maintained and confirmed by the authority of Calvin, Macknight, and Pool, that the forgiveness of the sins of the paralytick in the passage in question means only his deliverance from his disorder. This Jewish mode of speech is then illustrated by several passages in Isaiah, and a similar representation from the New Testament is produced in the following passage. The argument we do not recollect to have seen stated before with equal acuteness.

> A very plain example of ſimilar repreſentation occurs in the New Teſtament. "Then ſaid Jeſus unto them again, Peace be unto you: As my Father hath ſent me, even ſo I ſend you. And when he had ſaid this, he breathed on them and ſaith unto them, Receive ye the holy ghoſt. Whoſeſoever ſins ye remit they are remitted unto them; and whoſeſoever ſins ye retain they are retained." But were the Apoſtles endowed with the power of forgiving the ſins of men, or fixing their ſins upon them in the literal ſenſe of this phraſeology? All that can be ſaid, concerning them in this reſpect, is, that *they had the power of healing all manner of diſeaſes, and inflicting judgments on ſuch as oppoſed them in the performance of the duties of their miſſion.* Accordingly we

find, that Paul cauſed the ſins of Elymas, the ſorcerer, to be retained, by fixing blindneſs upon him, for labouring to turn away the deputy from the faith. This was the extent of the Apoſtle's power to forgive and retain ſins. This therefore was all that Chriſt himſelf poſſeſſed, while here on earth. For he told them, that, as the Father had ſent him, ſo he commiſſioned them; i. e. with the ſame power to forgive and retain ſins which he poſſeſſed. There can be no queſtion then, that, by forgiving the ſins of the paralytick, our Lord meant nothing more than healing him of his diſorder, taking away the conſequence of that intemperance, of which he had been guilty. Hence our Lord replies to the malicious wreſting of his words by the Phariſees, *Whether is it eaſier to ſay, Thy ſins be forgiven thee? or to ſay, Ariſe and walk?* i. e. What matter is it about the expreſſions, which we uſe, if they are but intelligible? Which beſt conveys the idea of cure, to ſay in the language of the prophets, which you cannot but underſtand, *Thy ſins be forgiven thee?* or to ſay in plain common language, *Ariſe and walk?* Surely you diſplay a captious diſpoſition in cavilling about words. *But, that ye may know that the Son of man hath authority on the earth to forgive ſins*, to take away the diſeaſes which come upon men for their ſins, *then ſaith he to the ſick of the palſy, Ariſe, take up thy bed, and go into thine houſe.* p. 60.

The eighth section contains a very full discussion of the use of the word *worship* in the Old and New Testament, in order to prove, what we believe no one will deny, that "there is nothing in the word προσκυνεω itself, which confines it to *divine* homage. The kind of homage implied in any particular instance is to be decided by the circumstances under which it is paid." P. 62.

The next section is employed in examining several important texts, in which *names and titles* appropriated to God appear to be given to Christ. We have not room to pass every criticism in review before us; a few remarks on some erroneous suppositions of Mr. S. may not be unprofitable.

On the original of John xx. 28. Mr. S. makes the following observation:

Both κυριος and θεος, Lord and God, are in the nominative, and require ſome verb to ſucceed, in order to make ſenſe. Θεος God, is, indeed, often uſed, for the vocative. But we have never ſeen an inſtance of this uſe of κυριος Lord. It is believed, that there is no example of it in the ſcriptures.

What does Mr. S. think of John xiii. 13. ὑμεις φωνειτε με, ὁ διδασκαλος, και ο κυριος? He had better also have forborn to supply, what he supposes to be the ellipsis in this exclamation of Thomas.

Jerem. xxiii. 6. "His name shall be called Jehovah our righteousness." On this appellation Mr. S. observes, "Christ is here called, in Hebrew, *Jehovah—Tsidkenu.* Abraham, that Father of the faithful, called the mount, on which he was to sacrifice his Son, Jehovah—Jireh. Moses built an altar and called it JEHOVAH Nissi—Gideon built an altar and called it JEHOVAH—Shallum. Yea, when David brought up the ark, from the house of Obededom, to the city of David, he styles it, in his song on the occasion, both *God* and *Jehovah*; *God is gone up with a shout, the Lord* (Heb. Jehovah) *with the sound of the trumpet.* Thus evident is it, that Jehovah is not a name appropriated only to the supreme God." Here we think the zeal of the author has rather overleaped his good sense, and led him to express himself inaccurately. If any thing is plain from the Old Testament, it is, that the title Jehovah can in strictness of speech be given to none but the only true God. Because it is sometimes used in composition with other words, as in the instances above cited, to constitute a name, it cannot with any more propriety be said, that persons or things thus nominated are called Jehovah, than that the city Elizabethtown is called Elizabeth. Surely also it cannot be supposed by any person, who attends to the subject, that, in the passage which Mr. S. has quoted from Psalm xlvii., the ark is called either God or Jehovah.

We are also satisfied that the author is mistaken in his interpretation of Isaiah viii. 14. compared with 1 Pet. ii. 8 ; but we can only refer him to a most valuable note of the learned James Peirce, on Heb. ii. 13., and also to Dodson on this passage in Isaiah ; for the limits of our review, and perhaps others will say of our knowledge, do not allow us to expatiate in elaborate criticism, and copious illustration.

" We now proceed to examine," says Mr. S. in the next section, " such passages as are said to indicate or imply *two natures* in Christ, a divine and human nature." After stating the arguments in favour of the reading ὁ in 1 Tim. iii. 16. Mr. S. offers the following translation of a passage, which, we believe, will forever excruciate the wit of the antitrinitarian.

> **Indeed openly proclaimed to all ranks and deſcriptions is the ſublime myſtery of godlineſs, which has been made known to mortal man, ſubſtantiated by miraculous atteſtations, revealed to inſpired meſſengers, preached to the nations, credited by the world, embraced with joyful exultation.**

Mr. S. must pardon us for our opinion, that he derives not his principal credit from his original attempts at Greek criticism. He makes several remarks to justify his unnecessary and paraphrastick version of ὁμολογουμενως, a word to which *confessedly* in English exactly corresponds.

Εν σαρκι (in Mr. S.'s version, *to mortal man*) cannot be justified by any parallel passage in scripture, and hardly by the Greek idiom ; ωφθη is never used in the passive to express the disclosure of truths to the understanding ; and finally, it is too much to say that the verb αναλαμβανω no more signifies to receive *up*, than it does to receive *down*." Though its classical use is undoubtedly extensive, yet in the New Testament it is repeatedly used to signify the assumption of Jesus into heaven. Indeed whether ὁ, or ὁς, or θεος be the true reading in this celebrated text, we think every impartial theologian must confess that the subsequent clauses can be properly applied to a person only, and to no person but Jesus Christ.

Mr. S. conjectures that *him* is the true reading in Zach. xii. 10. He might have added, that Kennicott assures us it is found in *forty* Hebrew MSS. to which De Rossi has added the authority of several editions.

On the celebrated prediction of the birth of Jesus in Isaiah vii. 14. we have much to observe, but this is not the place for our remarks. We will only suggest, that if this prediction, as Mr. S. supposes, does not relate to the birth of Christ, there is no literal prediction of his birth in the Old Testament. It is true that many illustrious names in scriptural criticism, among whom we may mention Grotius, support Mr. S. in his opinion ; but it should be recollected, that they also maintained a double sense of the prophecy, whereas Mr. S. with Porphyry, the modern Jews, and the subtile Collins not only contends that the name Immanuel belongs only to the child which the prophetess of that time was to conceive, but farther supposes that the evangelist in Matth. i. 23. does not mean to apply it in any sense, as a *prediction* of the birth of Jesus. Mr. S. ventures also to intimate his doubt whether Isaiah ix. 6, 7. has any reference to Christ. We are fully sensible of the difficulties, which attend the application of prophecies under the old dispensation to characters and events in the new, but we are not yet prepared to give up these capital predictions, though they have always perplexed the apologist for christianity, as well as the controversialist. We think also that a more full and accurate account of the variations of the different versions in this latter passage might have been expected.

Section twelfth, upon the *pluralisms* applied to God in the Old Testament, and section thirteenth, upon the appearances of what is called *the angel of the Lord*, are written with much ability; and a consideration of two very popular objections, in section fourteenth, closes this part of the work. In answer to the question what atonement can there be, if Christ be not verily the supreme God, Mr. S. has the following observations.

> Did the ſuppoſed *divine nature* become obedient unto death, even the death of the croſs? Did divinity itſelf ſuffer? Our opponents do not pretend it. This is true only of *the man Chriſt Jeſus.* Whatever virtue in his obedience unto death, muſt therefore be the virtue of the man Chriſt Jeſus only.
>
> But, ſay our opponents, the union of divinity to the humanity conferred an infinite dignity upon the ſufferings of the human nature, and rendered them infinitely precious, ſo as to amount, in effect, to the eternal ſufferings of the whole human race. Thus Chriſt ſatisfied the demands of juſtice, in the room and ſtead of our apoſtate world.
>
> The doctrine that the union of the divinity to humanity conferred an infinite dignity upon the ſufferings of the human nature, is only an imagination of their own brain; for the ſcriptures ſay nothing of this abſurdity. They ſay nothing of the virtue of his ſufferings being enhanced by any ſuch connexion. If the union of Deity to humanity rendered the humanity any thing different from mere humanity; if it raiſed it beyond its natural dignity to the dignity of God; why may we not conclude, that it rendered it *impoſſible, incapable of ſuffering*? This, in the days of the apoſtles, was the concluſion of certain metaphyſical reaſoners. And it may be as well inferred, from the conſideration of the union of Deity to humanity, that Chriſt muſt have been *impaſſible*, as that the ſufferings of the man Chriſt Jeſus were infinitely more than human ſufferings.
>
> It was, ſay our opponents, *a divine perſon*, who ſuffered; and therefore theſe ſufferings were precious, in proportion to the dignity of the perſonage ſuffering. They will have it that it was GOD, who died on the croſs.
>
> That Chriſt was really the infinite God, is a doctrine not known in the ſcriptures. Beſides, may we not turn the tables and ſay, that God's hungering and thirſting, in the human nature, after earthly food, was infinitely derogatory from the dignity of the divine nature, as to affirm, that God's ſuffering on the croſs, in the human nature, conferred an infinite dignity upon that, and rendered its ſufferings inconceivably more precious, than merely human ſufferings? Sufferings ſurely denote great weakneſs, want of ſtrength, and dignity of nature. And, ſince the infinite God ſuffered, he muſt be very *weak, impotent,* and *devoid of dignity.*
>
> Do our opponents diſlike this repreſentation? Will they ſay that theſe things are true only of the human nature, the man Chriſt Jeſus? Then let them not confound things which they themſelves diſtinguiſh. Let them acknowledge, that the ſufferings of the man Chriſt Jeſus were clothed with no other than merely human dignity; and were no more precious than merely human ſufferings. Let them look out for ſome more ſcriptural and rational doctrine of atonement: For there is, clearly, no more ability in the man Chriſt Jeſus to ſatisfy divine juſtice, upon their ſcheme, than upon ours. P. 142.

The second part is introduced by the following statement.

Having ſhown upon what grounds we are not convinced, by the arguments of the advocates for the ſupreme and independent deity of Chriſt, we proceed to ſtate what appears to us *direct and poſitive proof, that Chriſt is not the moſt high God, but a being entirely diſtinct from God, inferiour and dependent, his Son, ſervant, meſſenger*, &c.

In what follows there is nothing remarkable, because if Christ is really a human being only, there cannot be much room for laborious criticism or ingenious illustration of passages in which he is represented as a man. The parade of mathematical reasoning in page 147 is, we think, childish and unnecessary. The remarks in section 2, upon the meaning of the word *son*, are acute, and upon the prayer of Christ upon the cross, forcible. To prove Christ a distinct and dependent being, we have found no place in the present volume, where the reasons are more forcibly stated than in the following passage.

We come, now, to a very memorable paſſage, which embraces the whole economy of Chriſt's exaltation, and which ſtates minutely the duration and iſſue of it. "Then cometh the end, when he ſhall have delivered up the kingdom to God, even the Father, when he ſhall have put down all rule, and all authority and power. For he muſt reign till he hath put all enemies under his feet. The laſt enemy that ſhall be deſtroyed, is death. For he hath put all things under him. But, when he ſaith all things are put under him, it is manifeſt that he is excepted, which did put all things under him. And, when all things ſhall be ſubdued under him, then ſhall the Son alſo himſelf be ſubject unto him that put all things under him, that God may be all in all." In this paſſage the following things are worthy of obſervation.

1. The Son is ſpoken of under his higheſt deſignation. This the moſt eminent advocates of his deity are compelled to acknowledge; for he is ſpoken of in the capacity of ruling and governing all things, and ſubjecting every thing to his dominion, excepting the infinite God: Which they ſay is beyond the power of a creature to perform.

2. He is repreſented as a diſtinct being from God.—To God he is to deliver up the kingdom, and God is excepted from the number of beings to be ſubjected to him; which manifeſts that God is as diſtinct a being from him, as thoſe not excepted. Indeed if he were not thus diſtinguiſhed, there would be no propriety in making the exception.

3. The extraordinary powers by which he puts down all rule and authority, and ſubdues all things to himſelf, are repreſented as not inherent, but delegated powers from that God, "who did put all things under him."

4. Immediately after the ſubjection of the laſt enemy, death, the Son is to relinquiſh the management of the kingdom to God.

5. Then the Son himſelf is to become a ſubject to him, who did put all things under him. The meaning of this plainly is, that the Son ſhall then deſcend from his exalted ſtate of authority. He ſhall no longer be the oſtenſible governour, vicegerent, or medium through whom God rules and manages all things; but ſhall appear in his own natural rank, without any authority over his fellow ſubjects; and God ſhall govern without any vicegerent.

The whole of the above account coincides, perfectly, with our ſcheme of ſentiment; and is directly in the face of the ſentiment of our opponents. According to their ſcheme the Son humbles himſelf to become Mediator; and is, as mediator, inferiour to the Father. Upon the concluſion of the mediatorial work, then, he muſt *riſe to his former ſtation*, and take equal rank with the Father. But this paſſage repreſents that he is *to take a lower ſtation than he now has*, and to become ſubject to him, who put all things under him.

Beſides, how can the Son, as mediator, become ſubject when he ceaſes to hold that character? What is it that is to be ſubject, if not the ſecond perſon in the Trinity?

Further. Our opponents ſuppoſe that, when the economy of redemption is finiſhed, the mediator is to deliver up the kingdom into the hand of God; that is, of the three perſons jointly, between whom there will no longer be any economical ſubordination. But this paſſage aſſerts, that it is to be delivered into the hands of God the Father, *the firſt perſon*; who is here repreſented as having put all things under him. So that the Son and the Holy Ghoſt will not hold a rank equal to the Father's.

Moreover, as no one is excepted from ſubjection to the mediatorial Son, but he who did put all things under him, which is the Father from whom the Son received the kingdom, and to whom he delivers it up, it is plain, that the Holy Ghoſt is not excepted, and muſt be one who is ſubjected to the Son. And as the Son is to give all that government which he received into the hands of the Father, he muſt give the government over the Holy Ghoſt into his hands, ſo that at the concluſion of the economy of redemption the Holy Ghoſt will ſtill be under the rule of the Father: Contrary to their doctrine on this ſubject.

Finally, If the Son is to deliver up the kingdom to the three perſons jointly conſidered, then he muſt deliver up the kingdom to himſelf, he being one of theſe perſons. P. 168.

We wish that we had room to extract the remarks on the form used in baptism, and on the term Holy Spirit. But we can only say of the last section, that, in our opinion, it is the most ingenious, plausible, and impressive in the whole volume. We do not say *conclusive*, for this reason, among others, that we might be thought to intend a pun.

The style of Mr. S. though not flowing and polite, is generally correct, and sufficiently elegant for polemick writings. We think that he is sometimes too familiar, and sometimes too dogmatical. His mode of attacking his adversaries resembles more the untutored and natural dexterity of a rustick boxer, than the graceful flourishes of a practised fencing master. By declining to establish any scheme of his own, relating to the person of Christ, it is evident, that Mr. S. combats the trinitarians with much advantage. Other controversialists have commonly wasted their strength in defending some heretical offspring of their own brain, and by this incumbrance have exposed themselves to more formidable attacks, as a man fights under great disadvantages with a child in his arms.

We have been thus copious in our account of this book, on account of the novelty, the boldness, and the force of the attack which it makes on a doctrine, which is at least professedly believed by a large majority of the clergy of New-England. If they read this book, they will be sensible that it must either be answered, or thrown by with affected contempt; for though it contains not an argument against the doctrine of the trinity which has not been often repeated, still it offers a kind of challenge to the orthodox, and is written, we believe, with the most undissembled conviction. Let the inexperienced reader however keep in mind, "that one great advantage possessed by the Unitarians in their warfare with the orthodox results from the very circumstance of their being the assailants. If the Unitarians or even the Deists were considered in their turn as masters of the field, and were in their turn attacked, both by arguments tending to disprove their system directly and to disprove it indirectly, it is likely they would soon appear wholly unable to keep their ground."*

* Wilberforce.

ART. 20.

Familiar Letters to the Reverend John Sherman, once pastor of a church in Mansfield, in particular reference to his late Antitrinitarian treatise. By Daniel Dow, pastor of a church in Thompson, (Con.) Hartford. 1806. *8vo. pp.* 51.

FROM this *familiar* letter writer the person of Mr. Sherman is in much greater danger than his arguments. Our readers perhaps will esteem us partial, uncandid, and heretical for such an apparently contumelious remark; but we confidently rest our justification on their unbiassed judgment, if they should ever happen to read these letters, which discover the utmost contempt of scriptural criticism, ignorance of theological opinions, impudence of style, and bigotry of doctrine.

ART. 21.

American Annals; or a chronological history of America from its discovery in 1492 *to* 1806. *In two volumes. By Abiel Holmes, D. D. A. A. S. minister of the first church in Cambridge. Vol. I. comprising a period of two hundred years.* Cambridge. W. Hilliard. 8*vo.*

IN Rome the people were careful to mark down the occurrences of every year. Hence the name of Annals. This register was safely preserved, but at the same time exposed to publick inspection, that every one might read it, and every error be corrected by those who could give the most accurate information. The affairs of that city and empire are therefore better known, than the rise and progress of other nations. We know not only what was done by their consuls, but even the names of the consuls, from Brutus and Collatinus to the destruction of the empire. If similar records had been kept and preserved in other nations, or if historical societies were formed in every community, who should make it their business to note transactions rather than to write upon the times, the advantages resulting to the cause of truth would be exceedingly important. Such institutions would at least provide instruction for those grave and sober-minded readers who look after facts, instead of seeking for amusement in fabulous stories.

Individuals have done this among ourselves. The fathers of New England, though in some things too superstitious, were careful to note down, not only what was extraordinary or marvellous, but also common events, the occurrences of the year, the names of persons who were raised to honour, together with many particular circumstances by which posterity might judge of their characters. *Winthrop*, *Johnson*, and *Prince* enabled *Hubbard*, *Neal* and *Hutchinson* to give very correct information of the affairs of Massachusetts.

We say nothing of the *Magnalia*, that *compages rerum*, where facts, fables, biography, &c. &c. are mingled in such a strange manner, as to be a chaos of remarks, rather than of materials; and where the writer, whenever he tells what he himself believes, is sure to stagger the faith of *others*.

Dr. Holmes has extended the plan of his work and calls it *American Annals*. "While local histories of particular portions of America have been written, no attempt, he says, has been made to give even the outline of its entire history." We think him very capable of doing this, and that the *American Annals* contain a great deal of information; many historical documents; and a variety of knowledge, for which the laborious author deserves the thanks of the friends of literature. Dr. H. is well known as an author, many of his compositions are before the publick, and very few works of biography, written in this country, can be compared with his *life of Dr. Stiles.* The *Annals*, in our opinion, must add to his reputation as an author, and the work will certainly be more generally useful.

It has been uniformly his aim "to trace facts, as much as possible, to their source." Original authors have the preference; and this is an apology "for the occasional introduction of passages, that will not be generally understood." These are put into marginal notes, and may gratify a number of his readers. We are likewise pleased with his retaining the obsolete style and orthography of certain writers; for by this we may know more of them, and their works. Many think this useless, and that it only incumbers the pages; but certainly we want "the marks of authentick documents"; and why should not the antiquary be gratified with his dry morsel, as well others who relish the luxury of sentiment, and are sometimes very fastidious in their taste?

We know not a better plan of writing annals, than the Dr. has chosen, especially if the book be designed for a library; instead of being once read and thrown aside. His accuracy of research would have been unnecessary, if it were not to be considered as a book of reference, to which we resort when our attention is dissipated, and which will be useful to some who have time to read but little, and who can here gather facts, that before were scattered over many volumes.

We have read with pleasure many observations and lively remarks in the American Annals, especially in the Notes, which an ordinary writer would never make, even in a book designed for entertainment more than use; but which men of taste and sentiment can scatter over the driest parts of learning.

The first volume comprises the history of two centuries, i. e. from the voyage of Columbus, 1492, to the year 1562.

The annals of 1691 are confined to New-York, and Virginia, and to a few facts. *The province was divided into ten counties. Major Schuyler with a party of Mohawks went over Lake Champlain and attacked the French settlements.*

There were some events, however, very important to Massachusetts, which took place that year. The cruelty of the Indians was excessive upon our frontiers; and the famous Charter of William and Mary was granted. Perhaps Dr. H. reserves the notice of this to the succeeding year, when it arrived and was accepted by the people. As it is one of the very important events in the history of New England, we hope he will give some account of the struggles of our agents in England, and the very important change that was made in the government. The old patriots never liked it. The more moderate, as well as the loyal party, always thought it was better than the old one; as it put some check upon the phrensy of democracy, at the same time that it secured all our essential rights. We would recommend to the consideration of this respectable inquirer a curious extract in the 9th volume of Historical Collections—the conversation between King William and Dr. Increase Mather.

It is the earnest wish of all who have read this first volume of American Annals, that the second may soon appear, and that Dr. Holmes may meet with every encouragement in car-

-rying on a work of such a considerable magnitude among our literary productions.

The first hundred pages relate to the voyages which were made by the Spaniards, or other nations of Europe, before the English adventurers took any distinguished part.

Another hundred pages describe events previously to the settlement of New Plymouth.

Though modern writers are quoted, and references are made to the pages where events are recorded, it is evident, that the author has read the original writers; and he also quotes from them both in the original and the translation. Herrera, Peter Mutza, Diaz, Casas, &c. as well as Robertson and Clavigero.

Robertson, so much celebrated among the historians of modern Europe on account of his manly and beautiful style, is not so much to be depended upon for facts, as many who appear in a more plain dress. He is accused by Clavigero and others of great partiality; and his mind might be above that very minute attention to things, which an Annalist should make the object of his care. Dr. H. says, in a note upon the discovery of America, "Some Spanish authors have ungenerously insinuated that Columbus was led to this great enterprise by information of a country to the West, with the additional advantage of a journal," &c. He refers to Hackluyt and Robertson, Appendix, No. 17. for a confirmation of this. There was no necessity of touching upon this controversy in his Annals. He had only to mention the voyage of Columbus. But if he said any thing, he ought to have said more. Since the discussion of Robertson, the matter has been more disputed than ever, and not by Spaniards only. Mr. Otto wrote a paper upon this subject in the second volume of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, which has been reprinted in more than one country of Europe; and endeavours to prove by Robertson's concessions, as well as additional evidences, that Columbus was assisted very much by Martin Behem, who sailed in 1484 from Portugal, and discovered Brazil, and other parts of S. America.

"In 1492 the Chevalier Behem undertook a journey to visit Nuremberg, his native country. He there made a terrestrial globe, which is looked upon as a master piece for the time, and which is still preserved in the library of that city. The outlines of his discoveries may there be seen under the name of Western Lands, and from their situation it cannot be doubted they are the present coasts of Brazil," &c.

"This globe was made the same year Columbus sat out on his voyage. Therefore it is impossible that Behem could be profited by the discoveries of this navigator, who went a more northerly course."

Though Dr. Robertson treats the history of Behem as the fiction of some German authors; yet he acknowledges that "Behem had settled at Fayal; that he was the intimate friend of Christopher Columbus; and that Magellan had a globe made by Behem, by the help of which he undertook his voyage to the South Sea," &c.

He relates also that in 1492 he paid a visit to his family at Nuremberg, and left there a map, drawn by himself, of which Dr. Forster procured a copy, and which in his opinion partakes of the imperfection of cosmographical knowledge in the fifteenth century.

To be continued.

ART. 22.

Facts and observations relative to the nature and origin of the pestilential fever, which prevailed in this city, in 1793, 1797, *and* 1798. *By the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. Thomas Dobson. 1798. 8*vo. pp.* 52.

Additional facts and observations relative to the nature and origin of the pestilential fever. By the College of Physicians of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. T. Dobson. 1806. 8*vo. pp.* 99.

THE first part of this work was published in 1798;—the second within the present year. The two are now included under one cover, and we shall briefly notice the contents of each. It is the design of these publications to prove, that the yellow fever is a contagious disease, and that it is introduced into our country by importation. In our last number we gave a review of an account of the yellow fever at New York the last season; and we then said, that this account rendered the opinion of its domestick origin, in that instance, the most probable. We purposely avoided giving a general opinion on this subject, and we shall not think ourselves inconsistent, if we declare that other accounts of the same disease at other times, or in other places, support an opinion which may appear contradictory. We presume not to determine the character of witnesses, but we can declare the result of the evidence which is offered. Time may reconcile apparent inconsistencies, or may bring to light truths which have been concealed. For this purpose, time must be employed in careful and faithful observations by those whose situation permits. To us opportunities for such observations are rare, and we pray Heaven they may continue so.

It is well known, that the College of Physicians of Philadelphia have from the year 1793 professed their belief, that the yellow fever was an imported and contagious disease. Deference should be paid to the opinion of so respectable a body; but it is the motto of modern days "nullius in verbâ magistri;" and those who seek for truth will investigate facts, rather than ask for opinions.

In the first part of this work we have an account of the introduction of the pestilential fever into Philadelphia in 1798 by the ship Deborah. From the details given in the notes, and particularly in a letter from Dr. Daniel De Benneville, it appears very clearly, that in many instances the disease could be traced to a connection with the ship Deborah; and likewise that in other instances the persons, who had such connection, appeared to communicate the disease to their friends and attendants. It is however to be remarked, that this vessel emitted a "disagreeable and very offensive stench" to a considerable distance; and that several among the persons who were supposed to derive their diseases from this ship, of whom Dr. De Benneville himself was one, did not go even upon the wharf at which she laid, but were only opposite the wharf, &c. On the other side, however, it would seem by the account that the disease, with which those persons were seized, was infectious.

In the second part of this work the College declare their adherence to their former opinions; which, they say, have been confirmed by events and researches subsequent to the former declaration of those opinions. In this part we have some letters from respectable physicians and others, which deserve consideration.— There are also some "minutes of the sitting managers of the Pennsylvania Hospital," tending to shew, by events in that hospital, that the yellow-fever is an infectious, if not a contagious disease.

There follow letters from Dr. C. Wistar, and Dr. G. Bensell. They relate "facts tending to prove the contagious nature of the yellow-fever at *Germantown* in the year 1798." These are such as must make the incredulous hesitate.

"The history of the origin and progress of the yellow fever in New Haven, 1794," is extracted from the N. York Evening Post, and is corroborated by private letters. In fact, almost the whole was originally derived from Drs. Eneas and Elijah Munson. This history traces that disease to infection from a chest of clothes imported from the W. Indies in the sloop Iris. On this subject there has been a strange contradiction of evidence. From the whole together, which this volume contains on the subject, it is fair to conclude, that the chest of clothes was the source of disease.

We pass over other things less important to notice "an account of the rise and progress of the fever, which prevailed in Southwark, during part of the summer and autumn of the year 1805, by Dr. W. Currie." As this account is published by the College without comment, it has all the weight of their reputation in its favour. For we ought to presume that if any fellow of the College had known any thing which tended to invalidate it, that would have received equal publicity.

In this account it appears, that the first instances of the disease were in S. Crisman's family. Three of this family visited the quarantine ground on July 21st; at which time unclean vessels were lying there. One of these vessels had put two persons on shore there nine days before, both of whom were dangerously ill of the yellow fever. On the 27th of July one of these persons in Crisman's family, and on the 28th the other two were attacked with yellow fever. The one, first seized, died on the 3d of August; the others recovered. From these three persons the disease seems to have been communicated, by intercourse more or less direct, to others in succession. If nothing is omitted in this account, we must conclude that the disease originated from the imprudent exposure of certain persons to infection at the quarantine ground.

We recommend this work both to physicians and to all persons, who have any concern in making or in executing quarantine laws. If our commerce is subjected to embarrassments from quarantine, for God's sake let us have this process so perfect as to secure us from foreign disease. It is a strange sort of respect for the liberties of the people, which subjects merchants and mariners to great pecuniary and personal embarrassments, and at the same time permits any idle boy to take from us the benefit of such sacrifices.

Well aware that the discussion of this subject will not interest a large portion of readers, we omit many remarks, which the occasion presents.

NOTICES.

A Northern Summer, or travels round the Baltic, through Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and part of Germany, in the year 1804. *By John Carr, Esq. author of the Stranger in France, &c. &c.* 8*vo.* Philadelphia, S. F. Bradford.

When an English traveller tells us that he went abroad for health and spirits we very naturally conclude, that a narrative of his adventures will exhibit little else than a severe caricature of the various subjects of his observations. But the most invidious examination will discover in this work very few of those misrepresentations which would be expected as the usual effect of strong national prejudice operating on the impatience of ill health. The author travelled in the exercise of a singular indulgence for foreign peculiarities which earlier travels had so matured, that his avowed and honourable predilection for his native land in no instance intrudes itself to degrade the character of any other. This work presents to the reader much of that kind of minute, local information, which is amusing to any one, and to an inexperienced tourist indispensibly necessary, but which many travellers disdain to notice, and still more want skill to manage. The lounger may find in it much to wile away an idle hour with, and, if his heart has not been cankered and corroded, and his mind unnerved by sloth, will feel himself quickened into something like life, by some well wrought scenes of woe, drawn from history, and several striking instances of the mutability of fortune. To the romantick it offers no gorgeous displays of sentiment, and indeed nothing but fine descriptions of the wild and picturesque. And a political theorist would probably be disappointed in not finding the order and uniformity of the work interrupted and disfigured by the introduction of dry and useless calculations. The only strange and unusual trait which distinguishes this work, is, that we may glean from it more knowledge of individual and national character, and more topographical information than gazetteers or geographical compilations generally afford. If there is any fault sufficiently great to be noticed, it is, that his descriptions of works of art are sometimes too incomplete to gratify a connoisseur, and not always clear to one who is not. Here his periods are sometimes prolonged, till they become, what they generally are not, obscure and confused.

....

The Shade of Plato; or, a defence of religion, morality, and government. A poem in four parts. By David Hitchcock. To which is prefixed, a sketch of the author's life. Hudson, H. Croswell. 12mo. price 25 cents.

The Muses, like most other ladies, have long had the reputation of being somewhat capricious in the distribution of their favours, and since their favourites join in the accusation, we are compelled to believe that it must be just. If, however, they were formerly capricious, they have of late become lawless. The inspiration of poetry which was formerly reserved for those minds, in which refinement and feeling had been nourished by solitary thought and unbroken study, has of late been felt even at the work bench, and the plough. What mysterious connexion, what secret analogy there is between stitching shoes and making verses, we are at a loss to discover ; but certain it is, that the cobler's stall has lately been remarkably fruitful of poets. Our own country is not without her claims to a share in the honour which England may assume from this fecundity in " self-taught bards ;" and Mr. Hitchcock, the author of the book, whose title we have just quoted, is to be the supporter of our renown. Our bard, we must acknowledge, is yet unfledged, and indeed has scarcely broken his shell ; but we doubt not that if he should be warmed by the incubation of some American Capel Loftt, he will hereafter rise on as strong a wing, and sustain as daring a flight as either of the Bloomfields.

We have the following account of Mr. Hitchcock prefixed to the volume.

David Hitchcock, the author of the following poem, was born at Bethlem, county of Litchfield, ſtate of Connecticut, in the year 1773. His father, who was an honeſt and induſtrious ſhoemaker, after being reduced by a ſeries of misfortunes, to the loweſt ſtate of poverty and wretchedneſs, died in the year 1790 ; leaving ſix children, of whom our author was the eldeſt, and a weakly and bereaved widow, dependent upon the world for protection and ſupport. His inability to educate his children will readily be perceived ; but as the eldeſt diſcovered an early diſpoſition to learn, he ſpared no pains to gratify it, both by inſtructing him and ſending him to ſchool, (when want of money or cloathing did not prevent) from the fifth to the thirteenth year of his age. By theſe ſmall materials our author acquired enough of the rudiments of learning to enable him to make further improvements by his own application, at ſubſequent periods of his life. Some of his firſt productions were paraphraſes on the thirty-ninth Pſalm, the latter part of the firſt chapter of Luke, and others of a ſerious complexion. Theſe he compoſed principally in the night, while watching with his father in his laſt ſickneſs.

In the 26th year of his age he married ; and though he may be ground more cloſe by penury on this account, ſtill he enjoys peace and contentment, and has the addition of three children to his family, upon which he doats almoſt as much as the opulent do upon their riches.

Such has been the origin and progreſs (to the thirty-ſecond year of his age) of a man, who ſtruggling under all the diſadvantages of want of education, indigence, obſcurity, and the contumely of the world, has produced, by the aſtoniſhing efforts of his genius, the following Poem, beſides a number of ſmaller pieces of a ſatirical caſt.

It cannot be expected that we should undertake either a criticism or analysis of this production. It is an essay, in eight-syllable metre, on Religion, Politicks, and Morals, which the author put into the mouth of Plato ; and, though his style is hardly such as the Gods would adopt, if they should visit the earth, yet as every man possesses some rank in intellectual dignity, whose mind is superiour to his circumstances, this writer's merit must be admitted, and his poetry endured.

The author has a right to one extract.

While Phœbus from the human race
Hid the bright ſplendour of his face,
And from the ſeat of darkneſs hurl'd
A ſable mantle o'er the world :
While men from toil, repoſe obtain'd,
And univerſal ſilence reign'd ;
The ghoſt of an immortal ſage,
Who flouriſh'd in the Grecian age,
Sudden into my preſence broke,
And thus the radiant viſion ſpoke :—
    Stranger, forbear, be not diſmay'd ;
I'm Plato's once departed ſhade ;
Who from celeſtial ſpheres recede,
The righteous cauſe of heaven to plead ;
And clear its juſtice, truth, and grace
From the aſperſions of your race.
    O'er earth, where'er a God is known,
Mankind, their deſtiny bemoan ;

They all ſome ſpecious pretext frame,
To tax kind Providence with blame;
Each think the Deity they ſerve,
Chaſtiſes more than they deſerve;
And that their ſufferings here below,
Are one deſpotick ſcene of woe.
In Chriſtian land, where goſpel light
Illumes the intellectual ſight,
Oft have I heard your race repine,
That they're abus'd by power divine;
That they're deprived of happineſs,
Becauſe their parents did amiſs:
That their exiſtence here below
Is but a pilgrimage of woe.
For which the hapleſs race of men
Are ſubject to diſeaſe, and pain;
And when their days on earth are paſt,
Muſt feel the pangs of death at laſt:
That ſince the firſt unrighteous deed,
Mankind through every age muſt bleed;
And be clandeſtinely devour'd
By famine, peſtilence and ſword:
That man, had it not been for this,
Had revell'd in eternal bliſs;
And free from ſickneſs, death, or pain,
Would now in paradiſe remain;
That ſince their ſire was thus derang'd,
The laws of nature have been chang'd;
And counterwork their priſtine plan,
To ſcourge the feeble race of man;
Whence they're to every woe betray'd.
For crimes which they could not evade:
Oft they enquire the cauſe they've given,
Thus to be made the ſport of heaven;
And why its vengeance ſhould aſſail
A race ſo impotent and frail.

...

A sketch of the geography and present state of the united territories of North America; to which is added, a list of the several nations and tribes of Indians in Canada and the United States, &c. &c. By B. Davies. Philadelphia, A. Bartram.

THE object of this little work is to give a bird's-eye view of the geography, statiſticks, &c. of the United States of America. In the following extract we have the deſign of the author.

> This compend, in which nothing more than a ſketch can be given of the geography, and exiſting ſtate of the united territories, is divided into two parts: the firſt contains a *general* account of the ſoils, climates, winds, mountains, lakes, rivers, bays, capes, mines, and minerals; and the ſecond, conſiſting of eighteen geographical and ſtatiſtical tables, compriſes a brief view of the extent and population of the whole empire, as well as of the individual ſtates, their trade and ſhipping, conſtitutions and military force, revenues and expenditures.

As far as we have examined, the work appears accurate, and will be found particularly useful to a traveller through the country.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE U. STATES, FOR MAY, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

Trial of Samuel Chaſe, an aſſociate juſtice of the ſupreme court of the United States, impeached by the houſe of repreſentatives, for high crimes and miſdemeanors, before the ſenate of the United States. Taken in ſhort hand, by Samuel H. Smith and Thomas Lloyd. In two large octavo volumes—Vol. 2, in boards, price, to ſubſcribers, 4 dols. and a half, and to non-ſubſcribers 5 dols. Waſhington. S. H. Smith.

An inaugural Eſſay on the different theories that have been advanced on the ſubject of the proximate cauſe of conception in the human female. By Daniel Newcomb, A. B. of Keene, N. H. member of the Philadelphia Medical Society. 8vo. pp. 32. Philadelphia, John H. Oſwald.

Twelve Letters addreſſed to Rev. Samuel Auſtin, A. M. in which his vindication of partial waſhing for Chriſtian Baptiſm, contained in Ten Letters, is reviewed and diſproved. By Daniel Merrill, A. M. paſtor of the church of Chriſt in Sedgwick. 12mo. pp. 96. Boſton, Manning & Loring.

A new Map of the United States of America, including part of Louiſiana. Drawn from the lateſt authorities; reviſed and corrected by Oſgood Carlton, Eſq. teacher of mathematicks in Boſton. 6 dols. in ſheets to ſubſcribers. Boſton. John Sullivan jun.

A Speech, delivered in congreſs, on the 15th April, 1806. While the houſe, in committee of the whole, were diſcuſſing the bill for fortifying the ports and harbours of the United States. By Joſiah Quincy, Eſq. member of congreſs from Maſſachuſetts. 8vo. Boſton, printed by Ruſſell & Cutler. 1806.

Eight Diſcourſes on Baptiſm. 12mo. pp. 156. Boſton. D. Carliſle.

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David Hitchcock, author of the "Shade of Plato," and the "Knight and Quack," is preparing another work for the preſs.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,

From the 20th of April to the 20th of May.

THE weather during the latter part of April was generally cool and the winds from the north-eaſt. They have bought us but little of the vernal mildneſs; for although the ſky has ſcarce been covered with a cloud, yet chilling breezes from the eaſt have reigned almoſt uninteruptedly. The month, on the whole, has been remarkable for its coolneſs and dryneſs.

Pneumonic inflammation has been quite a common diſeaſe, during the paſt month. In many caſes the attack has been violent; but has ſoon yeilded to the vigorous application of remedies, and without much *loſs of blood.* As far as our obſervations and information relative to this diſeaſe have extended, the treatment of it, during the paſt ſeaſon, has been very ſucceſsful, and the lancet has been rather unfrequently employed. Numerous rheumatic affections have appeared this month. Fever has been very common, eſpecially among children. The invaſion of this diſeaſe has been generally ſudden and ſevere, but of ſhort duration. Thoſe chronic affections of the lungs, which have exiſted ſome time, have been much aggravated during this month, and new ones have appeared.

Small pox has again ſhown itſelf; and in the centre of the moſt populous part of the town. The early removal of the patient prevented the infection being communicated for this time. Vaccination is very widely diffuſed through the town. Scarcely have there ever exiſted ſo many caſes at one time, as at preſent.

We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of inserting the following speech, which has never before been publiſhed, although its length compels us to exclude a part of our usual collection. As the subject does not respect any local and temporary question of party politicks, we do not by its insertion depart from our principle of ever intrenching on the province of the gazettes. The deeply learned and profound investigations of this liberal and accompliſhed scholar will be appreciated by all who are qualified to judge.

MR. ADAMS'S SPEECH

On the Bill to prevent the abuse of the privileges and immunities enjoyed by foreign ministers within the United States.

THE BILL.

BE it enacted, &c. That from and after the paſſage of this act, if any foreign ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon, entitled to enjoy within the U. S. the privileges and immunities of a foreign miniſter, ſhall commit any violation of the municipal laws; which, if committed by a perſon amenable to the ordinary judicial authority of the place, where ſuch ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon, may be at the time of committing ſuch offence, would be indictable by a grand jury, and puniſhable by death, by corporal puniſhment, or by impriſonment or confinement to labour, the preſident of the U. S. upon application made to him by the executive authority of the ſtate or territory where ſuch offence may be commited, or upon the complaint to him of any perſon injured or aggrieved by ſuch offence ſo committed, and upon proof of the facts, ſatisfactory to the ſaid preſident, being furniſhed to him in ſupport of ſuch application or complaint, ſhall be, and hereby is authoriſed to demand of the ſovereign of the ſaid offending ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon, juſtice upon the offender, and reparation to any perſon or perſons thus injured or aggrieved; and in caſe of the refuſal or neglect of the ſaid ſovereign to comply with ſuch demand for juſtice and reparation, the preſident of the U. S. is hereby further authoriſed to order ſuch ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon ſo offending, to depart from the U. S. and the territories thereof; or to ſend him home to his ſovereign, according to the aggravation of the offence, and at his the ſaid preſident's diſcretion.

Sec. 2. That from and after the paſſage of this act, if any foreign ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon entitled to enjoy within the U. S. the privileges and immunities of a foreign miniſter, ſhall within the U. S. or the territories thereof commit any act of hoſtility or enter into any conſpiracy againſt the government of the U. S. or ſhall perſonally inſult or treat with diſreſpect the Preſident of the U. S. for the time being, the ſaid Preſident ſhall be, and is hereby authoriſed, at his diſcretion, to order the ſaid ambaſſador, miniſter or other perſon ſo offending, to withdraw from the ſeat of government and the territory of Columbia, or to depart from the U. S. and the territories thereof; and in caſe of refuſal or neglect by ſuch ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, to obey ſuch order within a reaſonable time, of which the ſaid preſident ſhall judge, the ſaid preſident ſhall be, and is hereby further authoriſed to ſend the ſaid ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, home to his ſovereign; and in either caſe to demand of the ſaid ſovereign, the puniſhment of ſuch offending ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, according to the nature and aggravation of the offence; and conformable to the laws of nations.

Sec. 3. That in every caſe, when the preſident of the U. S. ſhall, under the authority of this act, order any foreign ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon entitled to enjoy within the U. S. the privileges and immunities of a foreign miniſter, to withdraw from the ſeat of government and the territory of Columbia; or to depart from the U. S. and the territories thereof; or ſhall ſend any ſuch offending ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, home to his ſovereign the ſaid preſident ſhall, in the order given to ſuch ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, to depart, or to withdraw, ſignify the offence upon which ſuch order ſhall be founded; and ſhall aſſign to the ſovereign of the ſaid ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, the reaſons for which ſuch order ſhall have been given, or for which the ſaid ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, ſhall be ſent home; particularly ſpecifying that ſuch proceedings are not on account of any national differences, but on account of the perſonal miſconduct of ſuch ambaſſador, miniſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid.

SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Monday, March 3, 1806.

MR. ADAMS—

THERE are two points of view, Mr. President, in which it appears to me to be important that the provisions of this bill should be considered: The one, as they relate to *the laws of nations;* and the other, as they regard *the constitution of the United States.* From both these sources have arisen inducements, combining to produce conviction upon my mind of the propriety, and indeed the necessity of some measure, similar in principle to that which I have had the honour to propose. I shall take the liberty to state them in their turns; endeavouring to keep them as distinct from each other, as the great and obvious difference of their character requires, and that their combination on this occasion may appear in the striking light, which may render it the most effectual.

By the laws of nations a foreign minister is entitled, not barely to the general security and protection which the laws of every civilized people extend to the subjects of other nations residing among them: he is indulged with many privileges of a high and uncommon nature; with many exemptions from the operation of the laws of the country where he resides, and among others with a general exemption from the jurisdiction of the judicial courts, both civil and criminal. This immunity is, in respect to the criminal jurisdiction, without limitation; and an ambassador, tho' guilty of the most aggravated crimes which the heart of man can conceive, or his hand commit, cannot be punished for them by the tribunals of the sovereign with whom he resides. Should he conspire the destruction of the constitution or government of the state, no jury of his peers can there convict him of treason. Should he point the dagger of assassination to the heart of a citizen, he cannot be put to plead for the crime of murder. In these respects he is considered as the subject not of the state to which he is sent, but of the state which sent him, and the only punishment which can be inflicted on his crimes is left to the justice of his master.

In a republican government, like that under which we have the happiness to live, this exemption is not enjoyed by any individual of the nation itself, however exalted in rank or station. It is our pride and glory that all are equal in the eyes of the law: that, however adorned with dignity, or armed with power, no man, owing allegiance to the majesty of the nation, can skreen himself from the vindictive arm of her justice; yet even the nations whose internal constitutions are founded upon this virtuous and honourable principle of equal and universal rights, have like all the rest submitted to this great and extraordinary exception. In order to account for so singular a deviation from principles in every other respect deemed of the highest moment and of the most universal application, we must enquire into the *reasons* which have induced all the nations of the civilized world to this broad departure from the fundamental maxims of their government.

The most eminent writers on the laws of nations have at different times assigned various reasons for this phenomenon in politicks and morals. It has sometimes been said to rest upon *fictions of law*. The reasoning has been thus; every sovereign prince is *independent* of all others and as such, cannot, even when personally within the territories of another, be amenable to his jurisdiction. An ambassador *represents the person* of his master, and therefore must enjoy the same immunities: but this reasoning cannot be satisfactory; for in the first place, a foreign misister does not necessarily represent the person of his master; he represents him only in his affairs; and besides representing him, he has a *personal existence of his own*, altogether distinct from his representative character, and for which, on the principles of common sense, he ought, like every other individual, to be responsible; at other times another fiction of law has been alledged, in this manner; the foreign minister is not the subject of the state to which he is sent, but of his own sovereign. He is therefore, to be considered as still residing *within the territories* of his master, and not in those of the prince to whom he is accredited. But this fiction, like the other, forgets the *personal existence of the minister.** It is dangerous at all times to derive important practical consequences from fictions of law, in direct opposition to the fact. If the principle of personal representation, or that of exterritoriality, annexed to the character of a foreign minister be admitted at all, it can in sound argument apply only to his official conduct; to his acts in the capacity of a minister, and not to his private and individual affairs. The minister can represent the *person* of the prince, no otherwise than as any agent or factor represents the person of his principal; and it would be an ill compliment to a sovereign prince, to consider him as personally represented by his minister in the commission of an atrocious crime. Another objection against this wide-encroaching inference from the doctrine of *personal representation* is, that it is suitable only to monarchies. The minister of a king may be feigned to represent, in all respects, the person of his master; but what *person* can be represented by the ambassador of a republick? If I am answered, the *moral person of the nation*; then I reply, *that* can be represented by no individual, being itself a fiction in law, incapable of committing any act, and having no corporeal existence susceptible of representation.† I have said thus much on this subject, because I have heard in conversation these legal fictions alledged against the adoption of the bill on your table, and because they may perhaps be urged against it here.

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* It is manifeſt, that if *exterritoriality* were to be allowed to miniſters in the whole extent of the term, it would entitle them to many rights which they certainly have not: on the other hand the privileges allowed them extend far beyond what the univerſal law of nations preſcibes in their favour on this ground. Both theſe poſitions will be proved hereafter, and alſo that *this extremely looſe notion of exterritoriality* is not always ſufficient to aſcertain the rights to which a miniſter may pretend. *Martens' Summary of the Modern Law of Nations. Book 7, ch.5.*

† The repreſentative character of the ambaſſador is the ſign of repreſentation of the ſovereign who ſends, addreſſed to the ſovereign who receives the miniſter. Ambaſſadors being naturally the *mandatories* of the prince by whom they are ſent, the repreſentative character, by the law of nature, conſiſts in the power of tranſacting any publick buſineſs in the name and right of the ſovereign, by whom they are ſent, with another ſovereign power: conſequently by the law of nature an Ambaſſador *is not* as it were *the ſame moral perſon* as he who ſends him, ſo as to be the ſame as if his maſter himſelf were preſent; nor is the prince to whom he is ſent bound to conſider him as his equal. And as there is no neceſſity, either for the tranſaction of buſineſs, or for the dignity of the ſender, which may be preſerved without it, of that repreſentative character which conſiſts in the power of repreſenting the *perſon* of the ſender, neither is the repreſentative character, when ſtretched beyond the rules of natural law, any part of the *voluntary* law of nations: and conſequently if introduced

But it is neither in the fiction of *exterritoriality*, nor in that of personal representation that we are to seek for the substantial reason upon which the customary law of nations has founded the extraordinary privileges of ambassadors—It is in the nature of their *office*, of their *duties*, and of their *situation*.

By their *office*, they are intended to be the mediators of peace, of commerce, and of friendship between nations; by their *duties*, they are bound to maintain with firmness, though in the spirit of conciliation, the rights, the honour, and the interests of their nation, even in the midst of those who have opposing interests, who assert conflicting rights, and who are guided by an equal and adverse sense of honour; by their *situation*, they would, without some extraordinary provision in their favour, be at the mercy of the very prince against whom they are thus to maintain the rights, the honour, and the interest of their own. As the ministers of peace and friendship, their functions are not only of the highest and most beneficial utility, but of indispensable necessity to all nations, having any mutual intercourse with each other. They are the only instruments by which the miseries of war can be averted when it approaches, or terminated when it exists. It is by their agency that the prejudices of contending nations are to be dissipated, that the violent and destructive passions of nations are to be appeased; that men, as far as their nature will admit, are to be converted from butchers of their kind, into a band of friends and brothers. It is this consideration, Sir, which, by the common consent of mankind, has surrounded with sanctity the official character of ambassadors. It is this which has enlarged their independency to such an immeasurable extent. It is this which has loosed them from all the customary ties which bind together the social compact of common rights and common obligations.

But immunities of a nature so extraordinary cannot, from the nature of mankind, be frequently conferred, without becoming liable to frequent abuse. As ambassadors are still beings subject to the passions, the vices, and infirmities, of man, however exempted from the danger of punishment, they are not exempt from the commission of crimes. Besides their participation in the imperfections of humanity, they have temptations and opportunities peculiar to themselves, to transgressions of a very dangerous description, and a very aggravated character. While the functions of their office place in their hands the management of those great controversies, upon which whole nations are wont to stake their existence, while their situations afford them the means and stimulate them to the employment of the base but powerful weapons of faction, of corruption, and of treachery, their very privileges and immunities concur in

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by uſage it is part of the cuſtomary law; if by treaty, part of the conventional law of nations. Wherefore the *conſequences* derived from this character reſpecting Ambaſſadors, belong neither to the law of nature, nor to the voluntary law of nations; much leſs do they ſanction the gratuitous additions by which they are amplified. Hence no nation is bound to acknowledge them, unleſs in conſequence of expreſs ſtipulation. *Wolf. Inſtitutes of the Law of nature and nations. Part. 6, ch.* 10, §. 1242.

assailing their integrity, by the promise of security even in case of defeat; of impunity even after detection.

The experience of all ages and of every nation has therefore pointed to the necessity of erecting some barrier against the abuse of of these immunities and privileges, with which foreign ministers have at all times, and every where, been indulged. In some aggravated instances the rulers of the state, where the crime was committed, have boldly broken down the wall of privilege under which the guilty stranger would fain have sheltered himself, and in defiance of the laws of nations have delivered up the criminal to the tribunals of the country, for trial, sentence and execution. At other times the popular indignation, by a process still more irregular, has without the forms of law, wreaked its vengeance upon the perpetrators of those crimes, which otherwise must have remained unwhipp'd of justice. Cases have sometimes occurred, when the principles of self preservation and defence have justified the injured government, endangered in its vital parts, in arresting the person of such a minister during the crisis of danger, and confining him under guard until he could with safety be removed: but the practice which the reason of the case and the usage of nations has prescribed and recognized, is, according to the aggravation of the offence, to order the criminal to depart from the territories, whose laws he has violated, or to send him home, sometimes under custody, to his sovereign, demanding of *him* that justice, reparation and punishment, which the nature of the case requires, and which he alone is entitled to dispense. This power is admitted by the concurrent testimony of all the writers on the laws of nations, and has the sanction of practice equally universal. It results indeed as a consequence absolutely necessary from the independence of foreign ministers on the judicial authority, and is perfectly reconcileable with it. As respects the offended nation, it is a measure of self-defence, justified by the acknowledged destitution of every other remedy. As respects the offending minister, it is the only means of remitting him for trial and punishment to the tribunals whose jurisdiction he cannot recuse; and as respects his sovereign, it preserves inviolate his rights, and at the same time manifests that confidence in his justice, which civilized nations, living in amity, are bound to place in each other.*

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* It ſeems it may be ſaid on this ſubject that there is *no caſe*, in which the ordinary tribunals can extend their juriſdiction over publick miniſters; and this with the more confidence, as I find it is the opinion of Grotius. This is inconteſtible with regard to common offences; and as for crimes of ſtate, wherein the ambaſſador violates the law of nations, particularly if he attempt the life of the prince to whom he is ſent, the ſovereign alone, or the council of ſtate in his behalf, can take cognizance of it, can arreſt the traitor in his houſe, and afterwards ſend him with the proofs to the prince his maſter for puniſhment. *Wiquefort's Ambaſſador, book* 1, §. 29.

Princes ſometimes oblige miniſters to depart from their dominions, and ſend them away under an armed eſcort. Queen Elizabeth cauſed Don Bernardin de Mendoza, ambaſſador of Spain, and the biſhop of Roſs, ambaſſador from the queen of Scots, to be ſhipped off. Louis 14th of France ſent under guard to the frontiers of Savoy a nuncio from the pope. The king of Portugal diſmiſſed in like manner a miniſter from the pope, in 1646. And in 1659, under cardinal Mazarin, the reſident from the elector of Brandenburg was ordered to quit the kingdom;

On these principles, thus equitable and moderate in themselves, and thus universally established, is founded every provision of the bill before you, so far as it implicates the law of nations. I have been fully aware that, although by the constitution of the Unites States congress are authorized to define and punish offences against the law of nations, yet this did not imply a power to innovate upon those laws. I could not be ignorant that the legislature of one individual, in the great community of nations has no right to prescribe rules of conduct which can be binding upon all, and therefore in the provisions of this bill, it was my primary object not to deviate one step from the worn and beaten path; not to vary one jot or one tittle from the prescriptions of immemorial usage, and unquestioned authority.

In consulting for this purpose the writers, characterized by one of our own statesmen, in a pamphlet recently laid on our tables, as "the luminaries and oracles to whom the appeal is generally made by nations who prefer an appeal to *law*, rather than to power," I found that they distinguished the offences which may be committed by foreign ministers into two kinds,* the one against the municipal laws of the country, where they reside; and the other against the government or state, to which they are accredited; and that they recommended a correspondent modification of the manner in which they are to be treated by the offended sovereign. The first section of the bill therefore directs the mode of treatment towards foreign ministers, guilty of *heinous* offences against the municipal laws: for as to those minor transgressions, which are usually left unnoticed by other states, I have thought no provision necessary for them. The section points out the mode by which the insulted state or injured individual may apply to the chief magistrate of the Union for redress, and by what process the president may obtain reparation from the offender's sovereign, or, in case of refusal, dismiss the offender from the territories of the United States.†

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and afterwards put into the baſtile; whence he was taken, ſent to Calais in cuſtody, and there embarked. In 1667, the queen regent of Spain ordered the archbiſhop of Embrun, ambaſſador of Spain, to withdraw; and would not ſuffer him to wait in Madrid for the letters which he expected to receive by the firſt courier. All he could obtain was to ſtop at Alcala until their arrival; and there he received them. *Wiquefort,l.*1.§.30.

An embaſſador ought to be independent of every power, except that by which he is ſent: and of conſequence ought not to be ſubject to the mere municipal laws of that nation, wherein he is to exerciſe his functions. If he groſsly offends, or makes an ill uſe of his character, he may be ſent home and accuſed before his maſter; who is bound either to do juſtice upon him, or avow himſelf the accomplice of his crimes. *Chriſtian's Blackſtone. Vol.* 1. *p.* 253.—*See alſo Monteſquieu. Sp. L.* 26. 21.

* Suppoſe an ambaſſador guilty of a crime, deſerving puniſhment in a courſe of juſtice; where then is he to be accuſed and puniſhed?

In this queſtion we muſt diſtinguiſh between two ſorts of crimes, of which an ambaſſador may have been guilty. Either he has ſimply committed an offence, injurious to civil ſociety and the publick tranquillity, ſuch as homicide, adultery, or almoſt any other of the *common crimes*, as they may be termed; or he has tranſgreſſed againſt the perſon of the ſovereign, or againſt the ſtate, which is uſually called *treaſon* or *hoſtility*. *Bynkerſhoek, De foro Legatorum, with Barbeyrac's commentary, chap.* 17, § 4.

† Should an ambaſſador forget the duties of his ſtation, ſhould he render himſelf diſagreeable and dangerous, from cabals and enterprizes, pernicious to the

The second section provides for the case of offences against the government or the nation. If the insult is direct upon the president of the United States himself, it authorises him at once to discard the offender; if the injury be against the nation by any conspiracy, or other act of hostility, it offers the means of removing at once so dangerous a disturber of the publick tranquillity. This also will be found exactly conformable to the directions in Vattel.*

The third section brings me to the consideration of the relation which the bill bears to the *constitution* of the United States. It contains a regulation, the object of which is at once to prevent all misunderstanding by the offending minister's sovereign of the grounds upon which he should be ordered to depart or sent home; and to mark by a strong line of discrimination the cases when a foreign minister is dismissed for misconduct, from those when he is expelled on account of national differences. In this latter case, by the general understanding and usage of nations, an order to depart, given to a foreign minister, is equivalent to a declaration of war. In the European governments, where the power of declaring war, and that of negociating with foreign states, are committed to the same hands, this nice discrimination of the specifick reasons for which a minister may be dismissed, is far less important than with us. The power of declaring war is with us exclusively vested in congress; and as the order to depart, when founded on national disputes, amounts to such a declaration, it appears to me by fair inference, that for such cause the president of the United States cannot issue such an order without the express request or concurrence of congress to that effect. It was from this view of the subject that in the present bill, the power vested in the president to send home a culpable minister is so precisely limited to the cases when the minister shall have deserved that treatment by his personal misconduct. This distinction between the *causes* for which a foreign minister may be sent home has been solemnly recognized, in a remarkable manner, by this government in the treaty with G.

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tranquillity of the citizens, the ſtate, or prince, to whom he is ſent, there are ſeveral ways of correcting him, proportionate to the nature and degree of his fault. If he maltreats the ſubjects of the ſtate, if he commits any acts of injuſtice or violence towards them, the ſubjects injured are not to ſeek redreſs from the common magiſtracy, the ambaſſador being independent of their juriſdiction; conſequently thoſe magiſtrates cannot proceed directly againſt him. On ſuch occaſions the ſovereign is to be applied to; he demands juſtice from the ambaſſador's maſter, and, in caſe of a refuſal, may order the inſolent miniſter to quit his dominions. *Vattel. Book* 4, *ch.* 7, §. 94.

* Should a foreign miniſter offend the prince himſelf, be wanting in reſpect to him, and by his intrigues raiſe diſturbances in the ſtate and court, the injured prince, from a particular regard to the miniſter's maſter, ſometimes requires that he ſhould be recalled; or if the fault be more heinous, the prince forbids him the court, till he receives an anſwer from his maſter; but in important caſes he proceeds ſo far as to order him to quit his dominions. Every ſovereign has an unqueſtionable right to proceed in this manner; for, being maſter in his own dominions, no foreigner can ſtay at his court or in his dominions without his permiſſion. And though ſovereigns are generally obliged to hear the overtures of foreign powers, and to admit their miniſters, this obligation ceaſes entirely with regard to a miniſter who, being himſelf wanting in the duties incumbent on him from his character, becomes dangerous or juſtly ſuſpected by him to whom he is to come only as a miniſter of peace. *Vattel. Book* 4, *ch.* 7, §. 95, 96.

Britain of 19 Nov. 1794, in the 26th article.†

Here, Sir, the sending home a minister for national causes is recognized to be the very test of a rupture, and exactly tantamount to a declaration of war. But the same act, done for the minister's personal misconduct, is acknowledged to be a right of both parties, which they agree to retain; and it is stipulated that it shall not in that case be deemed equivalent to a rupture. The expressions used imply that the parties did not consider themselves as introducing in this part of the article a new law, but as explaining the old. It is merely declaratory, "for greater certainty," and the previous existence of the right is recognized by the stipulation that both parties shall *retain* it. This is one of the articles of the treaty which have expired. But, as expressing the sense both of our own nation, and of Great Britain upon the subject to which it relates, it is as effectual as it ever could be. Its provisions are still binding upon both parties, as part of the law of nations, tho' they have ceased to be obligatory as positive stipulations.

This view of the subject will also furnish me with an answer to the question which has more than once been put to me, and which may perhaps be repeated here. It has been asked, whether the first and second sections of the bill are not superfluous? whether the cases are not already provided for, and whether the president does not, beyond all question, possess the power which they purpose to vest in him?

That the power is beyond all question vested in him, is, Sir, more than I can take upon me to say. Had I thought it beyond all question, I certainly should not have brought forward the bill in its present shape. And I will in candour add, that if, after a due consideration of the subject, the senate should be of opinion, that the power is vested in him beyond all question, they will of course either reject the bill, or reduce it to a mere modification of the *manner* in which he shall exercise the right, whenever he shall deem it expedient.

By the constitution of the United States, the executive power generally is vested in the president, and he is expressly authorized and directed to "receive ambassadors and other publick ministers." Now Sir, by the general grant of the executive power, according to the writers who have scrutinized and discriminated with the nicest accuracy the powers of government, the power of declaring war would of course be included. Such is the opinion not only of Montesquieu, but of Rousseau, the most republican of writers on laws and constitutions. The practice of all the governments in Europe which ever recognized the division of powers is conformable to this theory. But *our* constitution has expressly made the declaration of war a legislative act, and, by fair inference, whatever is by the custom of nations equivalent to a declaration of war, we are bound to consider as a legislative act also. Thus then, although the president is invested with the executive power, and although he is to receive foreign ministers, yet, not having the power to declare war, he cannot possess that of ordering away a foreign minister for causes of national difference, because that is a virtual declaration of war. He is authorized to *receive* foreign ministers, and by this grant of power he must be authorized to determine when, how, and whom he will receive as such. He must be considered as possessing the power to determine upon all those cases when a man, coming as an accredited minister, may by the laws of nations be denied a reception; and he must also be allowed to determine when he will cease to receive a man in that capacity, after he has been admitted. This includes, as it appears to me, the right to request his recal, and even to intimate the wish to a foreign minister that he would depart. But whether it also includes the power positively to order his departure, and still more, to send him home by constraint, is not in my mind absolutely beyond a doubt. *Ceasing* to receive him as a publick minister, is not ordering him away; much less is it sending him home. It is clear the constitution did not intend the president should have the power to send home a foreign minister in some cases; it has not, in express terms, given him the power in any case. Whether he has it by implication, in the case of a minister's misconduct, seems to me not absolutely beyond a doubt, and I believe the very doubt in a point of this magnitude would operate to prevent its exercise in a case of the utmost need. That doubt it was my purpose by this bill to remove. To remove it, if it exists, is unquestionably within the power of congress, and the occasion calls loudly for their interposition. The doubt appears the more rational from the fact that the power has never been exercised. The revocations of exequaturs of two foreign consuls by president Washington have been mentioned as cases in point, but are not applicable: for, in the first place, consuls are not entitled to the privileges or immunities of foreign ministers; and in the next, the revocation of an exequatur is barely equivalent by analogy to the *cessation* to receive a minister. It neither sends the man away, nor even orders him to depart.

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† —And for greater certainty, it is declared, that a rupture ſhall not be deemed to exiſt, while negociations for accommodating differences ſhall be depending, nor until the reſpective ambaſſadors or miniſters, if ſuch there ſhall be, ſhall be recalled, or ſent home on account of ſuch differences, and not on account of perſonal miſconduct, according to the nature and degrees of which, both parties retain their rights either to requeſt the recal, or immediately to ſend home the ambaſſador or miniſter of the other; and that without prejudice to their mutual friendſhip and good underſtanding. *Treaty with G. Britain*, 19 *Nov.* 1794, *art.* 26.

But it has been the fortune of this bill to be attacked from quarters in direct opposition to each other; and while, on the one hand, it has been censured as vesting in the president a power which beyond all question he possesses already; on the other it has been blamed as putting in his hands a power which beyond all question he has not, and which the constitution never intended he should have. This construction of our constitution has been laid down, Sir, for our edification and improvement, by a foreign minister, in his correspondence with our secretary of state, which I speak of as a matter of publick notoriety, because it has been published in all our newspapers, and remains uncontradicted. I must however observe, that at the time when this bill was introduced I had never seen, and had no knowledge of this learned Spanish commentary upon the constitution of the United States.

I had not imagined that the true intent and meaning of our

our great national compact was to be settled by a foreign minister; neither did it enter my heart to conceive that the government of the United States was to receive lessons from a Spaniard upon the extent of its constitutional powers. Yet, Sir, so it is. The Spanish minister has first chosen to construe into an order, what he was expressly told was not an order; and next to tell the secretary of state that this order is contrary to the spirit of the *constitution* and government of *this country*. I find however that there are even American citizens, who think, with this diplomatick expounder of our laws, that the president in no case has the power to order a foreign minister to depart from our territories. I have myself always inclined to the opinion, that, for these cases of personal misconduct, the power of removal was given by the spirit of the constitution, though not perhaps by its letter. That he ought to possess it, is not in my mind a subject of doubt at all; for considering the nature of a foreign minister's privileges, and the danger and urgency of the cases wherein men invested with that character most frequently abuse them, to deny the president the exercise of the only means which can control them, is to deny the nation itself the means of self defence at the most perilous extremities. It may be asked whether this argument would not apply, with equal force, to the cases in which I deny the president's power to expel a foreign minister, and in which the bill does not propose to give it. To this, I answer, No. In every possible case, when a publick minister could be ordered home on account of national differences, congress must be in session, or must be summoned for the purpose. Such a state of things cannot suddenly arise. It is a measure never to be resorted to, unless with the settled determination of war; and its exercise never can be necessary for the president to the execution of his constitutional powers.

But the personal misconduct of a minister may happen at any time, when congress is not in session as probably as when it is. It would certainly happen more frequently in the former case than in the latter, if during the recess no power of restraint upon him could be used. These are offences, the detection of which would often be accidental, sudden, unexpected; calling for the instantaneous interposition of a vigorous arm to rescue the country from its danger. Suppose a conspiracy like that of Tarquin's ambassadors, or that of Catiline at Rome, like that of Bedmar at Venice, like that of Cellamare in France: To say that the president should have no weapon of defence within his reach, until congress should be assembled, would give the conspiring minister the power to execute at full leisure such orders as Cellamare received from Cardinal Alberoni, and enable him, before his hand could be arrested, to *set fire to all the mines*. It is therefore as clear to me, that the president ought to possess the power of expulsion for personal offences, as that he ought not to possess the same power for causes of national controversy. And if the constitution by its silence has left it questionable, it seems to me incumbent upon congress to remove every shadow of doubt from the case.

Among the other objections which I have heard alledged against *any* legislative act upon this subject, I shall now notice that which I consider as of the least real weight; and that is, that other nations have not made it a subject of legislation. But other nations have made the exemption of foreign ministers from their *civil* jurisdiction a subject of legislation, as appears in Martens.* And with respect to the criminal jurisdictions in cases of common crimes, it is remarkable that the same Martens says the English, *for the want of an express law* upon the subject, have departed from the usages of all other nations in this particular, and made foreign ministers amenable to their criminal jurisdiction.† Now, Sir, if the English nation are thus charged with a *deviation* from the practice of all other civilized nations, because they have *not* made an express law for acceding to it, surely no exception can be taken against us for making precisely such a law as England is said to want. This law, therefore, instead of a mark of singularity, must be regarded as a test of conformity. Instead of throwing us into a corner with the solitary exception, it introduces us into the general circle of nations. It is not in sullen derogation, but in explicit affirmance of the general usage. It is no variation of our political compass; it is only the steady pointing of our needle to the real pole.

But a still more conclusive answer to this objection is, that other nations have made no law upon this subject, because, conformably to their constitutions, the act of sending home a foreign minister is *in all cases an executive act*; and of course an act requiring no legislative interposition. I have already shewn, Sir, that by our constitution, it must in some cases, be considered as a legislative act; and hence arises a reason peculiar to ourselves for regulating the whole subject by legislative sanction: reserving to congress the power to exercise it when it becomes equivalent to a declaration of war, and leaving it in the hands of the president when it is upon our own principles an act purely executive.

These, Sir, are the considerations deduced from the laws of nations and from our own constitution, upon which the bill was presented to the senate in its original shape; the amendment reported by order of the committee is entirely in the spirit of the bill, and only specifies the precise mode in which the order for the removal of a criminal foreign minister shall be executed. This section may perhaps be deemed expedient even if it should be concluded that the abstract power is unquestionably vested in the president. For even if he has the power without the legalized organs of carrying it into effect, as to all purposes of publick benefit, the case is the same as if he had it not. It is, on this supposition, one of those authorities which require an organick law to render it practical. Nor is this the only instance in which the constitution has left it in the discretion of congress to prescribe the manner of carrying its injunctions into effect. The very first law in your statute book is an example of the same description. The constitution had enjoined that all civil officers of the United States, and of the several states, should be sworn to its support, but had not particularized the manner of administering the oath; and the first act of the first congress under our present constitution was to provide the necessary regulation.

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* The exemption of foreign miniſters from the juriſdiction of the ſtate is regulated in Holland by the ordinances of the States General, of 11 Auguſt, 1676, and 9 Sept. 1679; and of the States of Holland of 8 Aug. 1659, 30 July and 14 Aug. 1681. See the "Groot Placaat Boek" under date of theſe years. In England, by act of parliament, 10 Ann, ch. 7. In Portugal, by ordinance of 1748. *Martens' Summary, b.* vii. *ch.* 5, §. 3, *n.* b.

† In the practice of the European nations we find, that in caſes of *private crimes* committed by a miniſter, it is tho't commonly ſufficient to demand his recal. Though in England the want of an expreſs law ſeems to leave miniſters without ſhelter from a criminal proſecution. In the caſe of ſtate crimes, it is thought ſufficient to ſeize his perſon, while the ſafety of the ſtate is in danger, releaſing and ſending him home afterwards; even this extremity is not commonly reſorted to, if the danger is leſs imminent, and if it will admit the expedient of ſending away the miniſter, or demanding his recal. *Martens' Sum. b.* vii. *c.* 5. §. 182, *n.* a.

It may now perhaps be expected, Sir, that I should give some explanation of the more immediate circumstances in which the bill originated. And here, I am sensible that I tread upon delicate ground. So highly honourable and respectable is the office of a foreign minister, that to treat him with disrespect in common discourse, and still more in legislative deliberation, would be without excuse, were his own conduct altogether unexceptionable. Should the occasion ever happen that a foreign minister, by his own violation of all the common decencies of social intercourse towards the government to which he was accredited, should forfeit every right to personal respect or esteem, still I hope, Sir, I should not forget the consideration due to the credentials of his sovereign; still I should think myself bound to observe all that moderation of expression which can be consistent with the sentiments of indignation, involuntarily excited in my breast by an insult upon the government of my country.

Within a few days after the message of the president, at the commencement of the present session of congress was made publick, the Spanish minister addressed to the secretary of state a letter couched in terms which it cannot be necessary for me to particularize; and containing, not only strictures of the most extraordinary nature upon all the parts of that message respecting Spain, but complaints no less extraordinary at what it did *not* contain. Consider this procedure in its real light Sir, and what is it? A foreign minister takes to task the president of the United States, for the manner in which he has executed one of the most important functions enjoined upon him by the constitution. He not only charges him with misrepresentation in what he did say, but he presumes to dictate to him what he should have said. I forbear all comment upon this conduct, as it relates to the present chief magistrate. I ask you, Sir, and I intreat every member of this senate to ask himself, what is its tendency as it relates to our country? The constitution of the United States makes it one of the president's most solemn duties to communicate to congress correct information relating to the state of our publick affairs. In every possible case of disputes and controversies of right between the United States and *any* foreign nation, the minister of that nation must have an interest, and the strongest interest to give a gloss and colouring to the objects in litigation, opposite to the interest of our country. If, whenever the president of the United States, upon the high and solemn responsibility which weighs upon every act of his official duty, gives to congress that account of our foreign relations, which is necessary to enable them to adapt their measures to the circumstances for the general welfare of the Union, if a foreign minister, under colour of his official privileges, is to contradict every part of his statements, to impeach the correctness of his facts, and to chide him even for his omissions, to what an abyss of abasement is the first magistrate of this Union to be degraded? The freedom which a Spanish minister, unreproved, can take to-day, a French minister would claim as a right to-morrow, and a British minister would exercise, without ceremony, the next day. A diplomatick censorship would be established over the supreme executive of this nation, and the president would not dare to exhibit to congress the statement of our national concerns, without previously submitting his message for approbation to a cabinet council of foreign ministers. Under the British constitution, the speeches of the sovereign to his parliament are all settled in his privy council, and the royal lips are understood to give utterance only to the words of the minister. The reason of this is, that by the forms of their constitution the sovereign himself is above all responsibility, and the minister is the person accountable to the nation for the substance of the discourse, delivered by his master. In their practice, therefore, the speech is made by him on whom the responsibility rests. But if this new assumption of the Spanish minister is submitted to, our practice will be an improvement on the British theory, of a singular cast indeed; for, while the responsibility will rest upon the president who delivers the message, its contents will be dictated by persons, not only loosed from all responsibility to our country, but bound in allegiance, in zeal, in duty, to the very princes with whom we have to contend. The same control, which by this measure is attempted to be usurped over the acts of the president, will, at the next step, and by an easy transition, be extended to the legislature; and instead of parcelling out the message among several committees for their consideration, we shall have to appoint committees upon every part of the message relating to any foreign power, to wait upon the minister of that power and inquire what it is the pleasure of his master that we should do.

That such is the inevitable tendency, and the real intention of this proceeding will appear, not only from a due consideration of the act itself, but from a proper estimate of its avowed motive, and from the subsequent conduct of the same minister. He addressed this letter to the secretary of state, not for the purpose of asking any explanation, not for the purpose of giving any satisfaction, not for any of the usual and proper purposes of a diplomatick communication, but, *as he himself declares*, for our government to publish, with a view to counteract the statements of the president's message. It was a challenge to the president, to enter the lists of a pamphleteering war against him, for the instruction of the American people, and the amusement of foreign courts; and, having failed in this laudable project, he addresses, after the expiration of forty days, a circular letter to the other foreign ministers residing in the United States, with copies of his letter to the secretary of state, as if these foreign ministers were the regular umpires between him and our government. Not content however with this appeal, he authorizes them to give copies of his letters to ensure that publication with which our government had not gratified him; and calls at once upon the American people, and upon the European courts, to decide between the *president* and *him*. Here too, Sir, I beg gentlemen to abstract the particular instance from the general principle of this transaction. The same act which, under one set of circumstances, can only excite contempt, under another becomes formidable in the extreme. Of the newspaper appeal to the people, I say nothing. The people of this country are not so dull of understanding, or so depraved in vice, as to credit the assertions of a foreigner, bound by no tie of duty to them, the creature and agent of their adversary, in contradiction to those of their own officer, answerable to them for his every word, and stationed at the post of their highest confidence. But the circular to the other foreign ministers, is a species of appeal hitherto unprecedented in the United States. And what is its object? the *information* of their courts; that the governments of France and Great-Britain may learn from him the *justice* and *generosity* of his master.

It is probable that both those nations, the ally and the enemy of Spain, have much better materials for estimating the justice and generosity of his Catholic majesty; but what have they to do in the case? By an anonymous newspaper publication, the idiom of which discovers its origin, a precedent is alledged in justification of this extraordinary step, and the reciprocal communication of diplomatick memorials concerning the affairs of Holland in the years 1786 and 1787, between the ministers of Great-Britain, France and Prussia, at the Hague, is gravely adduced as warranting this innovation of the Spanish minister here. The very reference to that time, place, and occasion would of itself be a sufficient indication of the intent at this time. In the years 1786 and 1787, the three powers I have just mentioned undertook, between them, not only to interfere in the internal government of Holland, but to regulate and control it according to a plan upon which they were endeavouring to agree. Their ministers therefore very naturally communicated to each other the memorials which they presented to the Dutch government. And what was the result? Two of those three powers fixed between themselves the doom of Holland; raised a tyrannical faction upon the ruins of that country's freedom, and marched the duke of Brunswick, at the head of thirty thousand men, into Amsterdam, to convince the Hollanders of the king of Prussia's *justice* and *generosity*.

This, Sir, is the precedent, called to our recollection for the purpose of reconciling us to the humiliation of our condition. We are patiently to behold a Spanish minister, insulting the President of the United States, dictating to him *his* construction of *our* constitution; calling upon other foreign ministers to countenance his presumption, and entrenching himself behind the example of another nation, once made the victim of a like usurpation. The resemblance is but too strong, and will, I hope, not be forgotten by us. If the constitutional powers of a Dutch Stadtholder were prescribed and moulded according to the pleasure, and by the interference of foreign powers, as undoubtedly they were, let us remember the fact with a determination never to be so controled ourselves. It is held up to us as example. Let us take it as warning.

The subsequent proceedings of the Spanish minister have been all in the same spirit with that, under which he presumed to call upon the president to enter the lists of altercation *with him*, before the people of this country. They manifest pretensions to which we ought not to submit; which we ought vigorously to resist. In his last letter to the secretary of state, he tells him, that he will receive *no* orders but from his own master. Now if this has any meaning, it must be to deny the United States the right of ordering him away; that is, one of the most indisputable rights of every sovereign power. When pretensions, so destitute of all foundation, are advanced, it becomes us immediately to shew our sense of them: not to resist them might be construed into acquiescence. It is a virtual dereliction of our rights not to defend them when they are assailed.

I am indeed fully sensible that the operation of the bill I have proposed, should it meet the sanction of congress, will not be retrospective: that to what has passed, no remedy which can now be provided will apply. But we may prevent in future occurrences of a like character, and of much more dangerous consequence. We may prevent the spreading of an evil, which threatens the dearest interests of the nation. We may prevent even the repetition of insults and injuries, which, but for the want of the regulations now proposed, in all probability never would have been offered. In my own opinion, the necessity for some legislative provision upon this subject, will force itself upon this government with additional pressure from year to year, until it can no longer be resisted. If foreign ministers are to possess in the United States an unbounded independence of all the tribunals of justice, while the United States on their part are to be deprived of the ordinary means of self-defence, enjoyed and exercised by all other sovereigns to check the abuse of those formidable privileges, the course of events will, in my belief, at no very distant day, bring us into that unhappy dilemma, which will leave no other alternative than to infringe the laws of nations, or to sacrifice our constitution; to commit violent outrage upon the rights of others, or to make a dastardly surrender of our own.

Mr. President, I ask your forgiveness, and that of the senate for having trespassed so long on your and their indulgence. They have now before them the principles and the motives on which the bill was first introduced. It is for them to determine upon their justice and propriety. Should they think that my feelings or prejudices have exaggerated the evil for which I am sincerely seeking a remedy, or that the remedy itself is liable to insuperable objections, they will at once dismiss the subject from their deliberations. Should they on the other hand consider the principle of the bill as admissible, they will fashion its details at their pleasure. To their decision, whatever it may be, I shall cheerfully submit, with the full conviction that it will be dictated by a pure and enlightened regard to the honour and welfare of our country.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

JUNE, 1806.

ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No.* 6.

Theatres...Conversazioni...Amusements at Naples...Character and Manners.

I HAVE already regaled you with the ruins on one side of Naples, and before I present you those on the other, I will introduce you to the amusements and manners of the Neapolitans.

There are four theatres, three of which are generally open at the same time. The royal theatre, contiguous to the palace of the king, is just closed, at the commencement of Lent. The theatre itself is the largest in Europe. The fronts of the boxes were formerly covered with mirrors, which, when the theatre was illuminated, produced the most brilliant effect. The boxes are now painted, but each one has in the inside one or two small mirrors, in front of which candles are lighted. The theatre, except on particular occasions, is very obscure; it is impossible to distinguish any countenance in the distant boxes; there are no lights, except on the stage. Those who hire the boxes, which is generally done by the season, light their own boxes if they choose; this is but rarely done, so that, excepting half a dozen scattered boxes with four or five wax lights, the body of the theatre is in obscurity. I have been only twice at this theatre. The performances were a serious opera, followed by a ballet, neither of which could be called excellent. The dancing did not rise above mediocrity, and the dancers appeared to be more anxious to exhibit feats of strength, than those graceful, characteristick movements, which form the excellence of this art. In the musick also I was disappointed; the orchestra was mean, and there was no singer of great talent. There are three other theatres, at one of which comedy and tragedy are occasionally played. There are one or two actors and one actress possessed of considerable merit, but their action and gestures were violent and exaggerated. One of the theatres is devoted to the opera *Buffa*, and in this the Neapolitan singers and composers excel all others. The person that can hear the delightful airs of Cimarosa and Paisiello without emotion and delight, must be fit for "treason, stratagems, and murder." During Lent the theatre *Del Fondo* is opened for performing oratorios. That of Saul has been the only one given this season. Though I have heard it five or six times, my pleasure seems increased at every repetition. There is in this oratorio a quartetto, beginning "*Pietoso Dio*," &c. which I have no hesitation in preferring to every other piece of musick I have ever heard. Naples formerly boasted of the first singers and most able composers in Europe. The recent misfortunes of this country have driven most of them away. Paisiello is in Paris; Mrs. Billington in England; yet they still possess *Monbelli*, who, though past his prime, is the first *tenor* in Europe. The *Miller* is an admirable comick singer, and they have a promise of a great singer in the *Pinotti*, a young girl of seventeen, who has vast powers of voice, and is already a rival with the first *cantatrices*. If she continues to improve, she will become the best singer in Europe. Their orchestras are all of them mean; indeed the Neapolitans pay but little regard to instrumental musick, and have not patience enough to become great performers. I have seen them make many wry faces in executing some passages of German musick, which delights in difficulties.

There is little variety at these theatres; the same pieces are given for a month together, and the Italians who have heard them very often pay very little attention to the stage. They employ themselves in conversation, excepting the moment when some favourite air is sung, when they are profoundly silent. A stranger may vex himself to no purpose; the recitative and many of the airs are drowned in the talking of the audience.

The boxes are generally hired by the month, and, as no single tickets are sold, strangers have recourse to the pit, in which the seats are very convenient, having a cushion and arms to each; and each seat being separate, they are often hired by the month together, and in that case are locked up, when the occupant is not present. The theatres are opened through the year at the second hour of the night; so that in summer time the performance does not begin till ten o'clock in the evening. This awkward mode of counting time is very perplexing to a stranger, and the inhabitants here know no other. Sunset is, according to them, twenty-four o'clock; from whence they begin one, two, &c. As each day varies a little, their time is perpetually incorrect. It has been my misfortune to make several ridiculous blunders in this way of reckoning time.

The conversazioni are one of the most common amusements of Naples, and those to which a stranger is generally introduced. These are parties given in the evening, though of all others they least deserve the name of *conversations*. There are a few ladies who hold them every evening. Two of these, at the houses of the Dutchess of ——, and the Marchioness ——, are the most respectable, and are the resort of the nobility and respectable strangers. There are others of different grades, so that all ranks have accession to some of these parties. A stranger who should go to a conversazione with an idea to rational conversation, would be wretchedly disappointed. From the highest to the lowest, the chief occupations are cards and intrigue. Different games are played, but there is always one party for *trente un*, and this is the most common game. A person may have their choice of losing five dollars, or five hundred guineas in an evening. It was very disagreeable to see ladies seated at these tables, and intent upon the game: they certainly are never less attractive, than when thus employed. As for the Neapolitans in general, they are the coolest gamblers I have ever seen. Losing or winning, their countenance undergoes no alteration. In this they have a great advantage over the imprudent stranger, who suffers himself to be heated with his game. Not long since, an English officer, who had obtained a furlough, came to Naples to pass a few months, and had devoted a thousand guineas for his expenses. A few evenings after his arrival, being introduced at one of the principal conversazioni, he unluckily approached the table of trente un; he lost only a hundred guineas, because it was all he had about him; but in the course of two or three evenings, in regaining this, he lost the rest, and employed the last fifty in rejoining his regiment.

The company generally retire about two or three in the morning. No refreshment is given at these parties but iced water; and these conversazioni comprize the hospitality of Naples. As every person comes attended with one or more servants, they are playing for copper in the antichamber while their masters in the saloon are playing for gold. This rage for gaming appears to be universal. Every rank is engaged in it, and I have never been in any house at Naples, except the French ambassador's, where cards have not been introduced, and formed the principal amusement.

Hospitality is not a virtue of the Neapolitans. A stranger very rarely partakes of a dinner or supper in one of their houses. They are very temperate, and their repasts of the frugal kind. Fish of various kinds, which are caught in the bay, is the food they esteem the most luxurious. They have a singular prejudice against all kinds of tame water fowl; and ducks and geese, which are favourite food with other nations, are seldom placed on their tables. Their most common food is maccaroni, and many thousands in this city live on this food alone. A dish of boiled maccaroni with a little cheese grated over it, forms the breakfast, dinner, and supper of the mass of the people, and in one shape or another, they always form a part of a Neapolitan repast. The frugality of their tables is perhaps the reason, why strangers are excluded from them, whose sturdy appetites would be indignant at the insipidity of maccaroni. Excess in drinking is a vice almost unknown, and toasts are never given. The common hour of dining is at two o'clock, the hottest hour of the day: the dinner is soon finished, and then, overcome with lassitude, they strip themselves to the skin, and lay down. After the heat of the day is past, and the approach of evening invites them to partake of its refreshing coolness they rise and drive in their carriages to the Corso, which extends from the city toPausilipo; here they turn and return for an hour or two, criticise each other, rehearse the anecdote of the day, and when the last purple ray has faded from the summit of Vesuvius, and the distant shores of the bay are enveloped in obscurity, they return to the city, and stopping their carriages at the ice houses, they regale themselves with ices in their carriages. This is with them a favourite luxury, and in no part of the world are they so well made, as at Naples.

After going home and adjusting their dress, they go to the theatre, which is generally over before midnight, and then they go to a conversazione, or, in the heat of summer, to a supper party at Pausilipo, and an excursion on the bay. At the approach of morning they retire to repose from their fatigue, and to prepare themselves for the next day. I have been so well initiated into this regular mode of life, that I seldom see my bed before three or four o'clock in the morning, the hour when the industrious farmer in America has already begun his daily labour.

The Neapolitan men are of superiour stature to most other nations; it is rare in any country to see so many large men as are in this city. Some of them are celebrated for their personal strength: but their indolent manners and inactive appearance make them appear incapable of strong exertions. They are the slaves of voluptuousness, and extremely serious. Gaiety requires a degree of elasticity, both physical and moral, which they never possess, or which the climate destroys. The vivacity, the sprightly activity of a Frenchman forms the most striking contrast, with the grave indolence of the Neapolitans.

The appearance of the women is inferiour to that of the men. The climate soon matures and soon destroys their charms. A fine complexion is seldom seen, and their excessive indolence encourages corpulency, to which they are most of them subject. Yet one feature they have in perfection; they have universally fine eyes, sparkling, penetrating, and full of expression. They never walk; but when they go out it is always in a carriage. The publick promenade, called the villa, is a very pleasing one, yet it is little frequented. There are not more than a dozen ladies who walk in it, and only four or five of these often use this exercise. As they are never seen, except in a carriage, or sitting in a room, pains are bestowed only on the bust, and their head and shoulders are generally arranged with care and taste, whilst the rest of the dress is awkward and slovenly; like the graceful neck and snowy breast of the swan, which appears so beautiful when he is swimming on the water, but which is wholly destroyed by his clumsy gait in walking. The Neapolitan ladies should not be seen walking, as their waddling gait and uncouth dress are always ridiculous, and sometimes disgusting. Rouge is little used. They are affable to strangers, and appear sometimes to prefer their society to that of their own countrymen. Most travellers have attributed to the sex in this country a strong disposition for amorous gallantry and intrigue; and Dupaty says, that they deceive with singular adroitness. What all concur in, is generally true; I have no reason to contradict their opinions.

Both sexes are generally very slovenly, and the people are very dirty. They have many fine fountains, and might easily have hot and cold baths in every part of the city; but they appear to have an antipathy to water, and there are only three months in the year that they bathe; when temporary sheds are erected upon the borders of the bay for this purpose. It is singular, that the luxury of warm baths, so natural to an effeminate people, and which was so common under the ancient Romans, that even the meanest people made use of them, should be wholly unknown at Naples, when they might be so easily obtained, and would be so important both to their health and pleasure.

The little fidelity that is found in matrimonial life, and of course the corrupt state of society, must be attributed to the manner in which marriages are formed. Conversing on this subject with a lady, whose own conduct was irreproachable, she asked me how it was possible, that it could be otherwise, when the marriages were formed by the parents, directed by motives of interest and ambition, and in which the parties themselves were never consulted! A young girl is taken from a convent, and espoused to a man, who may be wholly disgusting to her: she complains for some time of her destiny; the seduction and example of society soon persuade her to meliorate it. The husband, who has taken his wife from convenience, sees her lover with as much indifference as the rest of society, and derives his consolation in making the injury mutual.

After having dwelt on the defect of hospitality, and the insipid, degraded state of society in this great city, I should be unjust, if I did not inform you, that several causes have contributed to make it peculiarly bad at the present moment. The revolution produced the most fatal effects; some of the best characters fell sacrifices to the rage of different parties, and many noble families were constrained by their political opinions to abandon their country. Those, who remained, were plundered of their property, and their estates were ruined. The king is at Palermo, where he holds his court. The queen is at Vienna, and a part of the court is with her. The hereditary prince is the only one of the royal family now at Naples, except a little prince, of six years old, and the courtiers know too well the danger of paying much attention to him. Sir William Hamilton, whose hospitable house was frequented by the best society, is no longer here, and the French influence is so predominant, that the present English minister lives in rather a retired manner. At the house of Mr. Alguier, the French ambassador, there are no Neapolitans nor cards admitted, and this is the only house, where I have seen that kind of society, and enjoyed that rational, liberal conversation, which are found in the circles of some other countries.

REMARKER, *No*, 10,

Rura mihi et rigui placeant in vallibus amnes;
Flumina amem silvasque inglorius. VIRG. Geor. 2.

Oh may I yet, by fame forgotten, dwell
By gushing fount, wild wood, and shadowy dell. SOTHEBY.

THE love of nature is a passion of the soul, pure and intellectual. Its energy is sublime, without the violence of animal impulse, and its enjoyment fine and exquisite, without the riot and confusion of mental and physical indulgence. It is purely spiritual, because it is produced by the perceptions of the mind, of what is abstractly beautiful, and it is rapturous in that sympathy, which rebounds from the coincidence of natural and ideal beauty. This sympathy, however, is not merely confined to such a harmony of beauties; it mingles also with what is tranquil in nature, and it extends with what is sublime. The softness of the landscape at sun-setting breathes itself to the bosom with the tenderest melancholy, and the stillness of the lake under moonlight soothes the soul into sweetest repose. In the terror of the mighty evolutions of nature, man is also prepared for ruin. His genius bounds at the approach of the whirlwind; it rushes with the swiftness of its fury, and tracks it through its rustling path to the boundaries of the heavens. It is transcendent amid the horrours of the tempest, and, as the lightning breaks from the thunder cloud, it leaps with sublimity, and moves on its blazing line into the profundity of darkness.

Man thus appears to hold an intimate connexion, and grand alliance with nature. But the enjoyment of this blessing seems negative by habitual experience, though the consciousness of it is necessarily deduced from the supremacy of his power, and the sublimity of his position over all surrounding existence. Still, however, must he remain contented with the certainty of its possession, though it be in some measure unaccountable to himself. He must learn to satisfy his mind with the resemblances of facts, on subjects too subtle for their operation, and he must not sicken at the disappointment of defining, what is infinite. The brightness of beauty should enlighten the mistiness of its existence, and that sublimity which is not instantaneous and universal, may be produced by elevation of thought and combination of magnitudes. His mind may, for a moment, stand and gaze on the very borders of its own perfection; but before it can even catch a glimpse of what rolls beyond, it perceives light and vision blended, and lost in the deep void of boundless space.

There is, moreover, the sweetest union of the pleasures of sense and intellect in the delight of nature. Through this bright medium the vision of fancy has an infinite series of delightful views, sometimes breaking into the bright opening of rapture, and sometimes lengthening and expanding into the luxuriant extent of enjoyment. Every pleasurable impulse of sense urges incipient action into the execution of delight; and every great passion riots in indulgence, more rapturous by progression, and more vacant by excess; not forbidden by reason, nor tainted by disgust. He, who thus gives himself up to nature, is in the brightness and purity of his existence. His mind philosophizes with itself in the loneliness of meditation, and his passions receive ordinance from the solemn convention of philosophy and religion.

Human nature, thus ennobled with powers so sublime, and softened with sensibilities so delicate, each qualified with capacities of enjoyment, extensive as the subjects are exhaustless, must indeed be inveterate against its own happiness by renouncing the experience of it. We too niggardly encroach on the rights of intellect in the vain enterprize of meliorating that, which is already essentially below the standard of human dignity. Few are even aware of the freedom and range of nature, for half mankind come into the world with manacles and fetters. With the smile of slaves, they are pleased and exult with the freedom of breath, and the liberty of life. They sicken and rot within the impalement of a city, without once brightening their eye with a gleam of pure light, or refreshing their lungs with the balmy inhalations of pure expanse. There is a feebleness about them, which is not the relaxation of strength, and a languor, which is not the repose of enjoyment. At death their eye shuts blankly on the walls of their prison, while the vision of him, who has communed with nature, slowly fades with the melancholy dimness of things, and vanishes with their departure.

How truly inglorious is existence, thus drawn out by the continual motives of business, and fretted away by the vain anxieties of city life. How vacant the mind, without the intelligence of nature, and how spiritless the brain, without the thrills of her emotions. He, who is thus kennelled in the city, prefers the bustle of noisy nothingness to the soothing serenity of country life; an atmosphere darkened with the dust of drudgery and labour to the blue expanse, over the fresh landscape; the jargon of brokers, and the brawlings and heavings of "fat and greasy citizens" to the sound of the spring bird at evening, or the broken song of the peasant on his doorstone. To all the exquisite niceties and delicacies of cultured product, even his senses are blunt. He had rather sit, of a dog-day, with four and twenty trenchermen, "big and burly," at the head of a table, whose loaded extent presents the perspective of a market place, than to retire to the cool cell in the grove, to regale himself amid the freshness of fruit, and the raciness of vegetables.

On the contrary, how pleasantly and how naturally flows the life of him, who breathes it in the cool shades of silent retirement, his soul expanding with the pure sentiments, which rural imagery inspires; who loves to stretch himself, at noon day, in the deep shade of the mountain brow, and follow the huge shadow of the dark cloud, as it sails over the plain, deepening the luxuriance of the vallies, and reflecting bright and glaring light on the edges of cliffs and precipices; or in the stillness of a summer's evening, aside the old oak that sighs in the night breeze, to catch the bright forms of departed friends in the white clouds, which wave over the moon.

The constant action of thought in retirement, adds another charm to it. The mind here is not left merely to its own operation, reasoning on subjects of its own suggestion, without the standard of perceptible truth for the conclusion of such abstractions. But it has the constant presentation of the sublime experiment of universal cause and effect, free from the anxieties of chance, and unincumbered with the ponderous mass of human follies, prejudices, and absurdities. Its acquisition is the wisdom of nature, and its truth is that certainty of conclusion, which is deduced from determinate causes, invariably efficient of consequential effects.

There is yet another charm in this retreat from the town, and the throng, which is beyond even the fascination of poetry. We here feel, that description is only imitative of nature, and we turn from the transcription, however charming and exact, to the raptures of the original. We are no longer content with the ideal sympathy of visionary existence, but we extend all the pleasures of fiction into the emotions of sensible truth. In the presence of nature, even the minuteness and exactitude of Cowper is indiscriminate and unsatisfactory; the mellow luxuriance of Thomson barren and wasteful. In the bright expanse, which surrounds her, even the sublime and transcendent genius of Milton flutters with dark and heavy wings, near the earth, but faintly tinged with the celestial light, and rests on objects blasted or deformed. Let him then, whose soul is pure and holy with the love of nature, take his position in the midst of creation, and commence the mighty work of the eternal perfection of thought.

On Thursday, the 12th of this month, the Hon. JOHN Q. ADAMS, was inaugurated as the first Boylston Professor of Rhetorick and Oratory at Harvard University. We have requested a copy of his inaugural Oration delivered on that occasion, with a belief, that its perusal would afford high gratification to our readers. For his prompt compliance with our request, we beg leave to tender him our most grateful acknowledgements.

AN INAUGURAL ORATION.

BY HON. J. Q. ADAMS.

IT is the fortune of some opinions, as well as of some individual characters, to have been, during a long succession of ages, subjects of continual controversy among mankind. In forming an estimate of the moral or intellectual merits of many a person, whose name is recorded in the volumes of history, their virtues and vices are so nearly balanced, that their station in the ranks of fame has never been precisely assigned, and their reputation, even after death, vibrates upon the hinges of events, with which they have little or no perceptible connexion. Such too has been the destiny of the arts and sciences in general, and of the art of rhetorick in particular. Their advancement and decline have been alternate in the annals of the world. At one period they have been cherished, admired, and cultivated; at another neglected, despised, and oppressed. Like the favourites of princes, they have had their turns of unbounded influence and of excessive degradation. Now the enthusiasm of their votaries has raised them to the pinnacle of greatness; now a turn of the wheel has hurled them prostrate in the dust. Nor have these great and sudden revolutions always resulted from causes seemingly capable of producing such effects. At one period, the barbarian conqueror destroys, at another he adopts, the arts of the vanquished people. The Grecian Muses were led captive and in chains to Rome. Once there, they not only burst asunder their own fetters, but soon mounting the triumphal car, rode with supreme ascendancy over their victors. More than once have the Tartars, after carrying conquest and desolation over the empire of China, been subdued in turn by the arts of the nation, they had enslaved; as if by a wise and equitable retribution of nature the authors of violence were doomed to be overpowered by their own prosperity, and to find in every victory the seeds of defeat.

On the other hand, the arts and sciences, at the hour of their highest exaltation, have been often reproached and insulted by those, on whom they had bestowed their choicest favours, and most cruelly assaulted by the weapons, which themselves had conferred. At the zenith of modern civilization, the palm of unanswered eloquence was awarded to the writer, who maintained, that the sciences had always promoted rather the misery, than the happiness of mankind; and in the age and nation, which heard the voice of Demosthenes, Socrates has been represented as triumphantly demonstrating, that rhetorick cannot be dignified with the name of an art; that it is but a pernicious practice...the mere counterfeit of justice. This opinion has had its followers from the days of Socrates to our own, and it still remains an inquiry among men, as in the age of Plato and in that of Cicero, whether eloquence is an art, worthy of the cultivation of a wise and virtuous man. To assist us in bringing the mind to a satisfactory result of this inquiry, it is proper to consider the art, as well in its nature, as in its effects; to derive our inferences, not merely from the uses, which have been made of it, but from the purposes, to which it ought to be applied, and the end, which it is destined to answer.

The peculiar and highest characteristick, which distinguishes man from the rest of the animal creation, is *reason*. It is by this attribute, that our species is constituted the great link between the physical and intellectual world. By our passions and appetites we are placed on a level with the herds of of the forest; by our reason we participate in the divine nature itself: formed of clay, and compounded of dust, we are, in the scale of creation, little higher than the clod of the valley; endowed with reason, we are little lower than the angels. It is by the gift of reason, that the human species enjoys the exclusive and inestimable privilege of progressive improvement, and is enabled to avail itself of the advantages of individual discovery. As the necessary adjunct and vehicle of reason, the faculty of speech was also bestowed as an exclusive privilege upon man: not the mere utterance of articulate sounds; not the mere cries of passion, which he has in common with the lower orders of animated nature: but as the conveyance of thought; as the means of rational intercourse with his fellow-creature, and of humble communion with his God. It is by the means of reason, clothed with speech, that the most precious blessings of social life are communicated from man to man, and that supplication, thanksgiving, and praise are addressed to the author of the universe. How justly then, with the great dramatick poet may we exclaim,

> "Sure, he that made us with such *large discourse*,
> Looking before and after, gave us not
> That capability and God-like reason
> To rust in us, unus'd."

A faculty thus elevated, given us for so sublime a purpose, and destined to an end so excellent, was not intended by the supreme Creator to be buried in the grave of neglect. As the source of all human improvements it was itself susceptible of improvement by industry and application, by observation and experience. Hence, wherever man has been found in a social state, and wherever he has been sensible of his dependance upon a supreme disposer of events, the value and the power of publick speaking, if not universally acknowledged, has at least been universally felt.

For the truth of these remarks let me appeal to the testimony of history, sacred and profane. We shall find it equally clear and conclusive from the earliest of her records, which have escaped the ravages of time. When the people of God were groaning under the insupportable oppressions of Egyptian bondage, and the Lord of hosts condescended by miraculous interposition, to raise them up a deliverer, the want of *eloquence* was pleaded, by the chosen object of his ministry, as an argument of his incompetency for the high commission, with which he was to be charged. To supply this deficiency, which, even in the communication of more than human powers, Eternal Wisdom had not seen fit to remove, another favoured servant of the Most High was united in the exalted trust of deliverance, and specially appointed, for the purpose of declaring the divine will, to the oppressor and the oppressed: to the monarch of Egypt and the children of Israel. "Is not Aaron the Levite thy brother? I know that he can *speak well*. And he shall be thy spokesman unto the people: and he shall be, even he shall be to thee instead of a mouth, and thou shalt be to him instead of God." It was not sufficient for the beneficent purposes of divine Providence that the shepherd of his flock should be invested with the power of performing signs and wonders to authenticate his mission, and command obedience to his words.... The appropriate instrument to appal the heart of the tyrant upon his throne, and to control the wayward dispositions of the people, was an eloquent speaker; and the importance of the duty is apparent in the distinction, which separated it from all the other transcendent gifts, with which the inspired leader was endowed, and committed it as a special charge to his associate. Nor will it escape your observation, that when the first great object of their joint mission was accomplished, and the sacred system of laws and polity for the emancipated nation was delivered by the voice of heaven from the holy mountain, the same *eloquent speaker* was separated from among the children of Israel, to minister in the priest's office; to bear the iniquity of their holy things; to offer up to God, their creator and preserver, the publick tribute of their social adoration.

In the fables of Greece and Egypt the importance of eloquence is attested by the belief, that the art of publick speaking was of celestial origin, ascribed to the invention of a God, who, from the possession of this faculty, was supposed to be the messenger and interpreter of Olympus. It is attested by the solicitude, with which the art was cultivated at a period of the remotest antiquity. With the first glimpse of historical truth, which bursts from the oriental regions of mythological romance, in that feeble and dubious twilight, which scarcely discerns the distinction between the fictions of pagan superstition and the narrative of real events, a school of rhetorick and oratory, established in the Peloponnesus, dawns upon our view. After the lapse of a thousand years from that time, Pausanias, a Grecian geographer and historian, explicitly asserts, that he had read a treatise upon the art, composed by the founder of this school, a cotemporary and relative of Theseus in the age preceding that of the Trojan war. The poems of Homer abound with still more decisive proofs of the estimation, in which the powers of oratory were held, and of the attention, with which it was honoured as an essential object of instruction in the education of youth.

From that æra, through the long series of Greek and Roman history down to the gloom of universal night, in which the glories of the Roman empire expired, the triumphs and the splendour of eloquence are multiplied and conspicuous. Then it was, that the practice of the art attained a perfection ever since unrivalled, and to which all succeeding times have listened with admiration and despair. At Athens and Rome a town-meeting could scarcely be held, without being destined to immortality; a question of property between individual citizens could scarcely be litigated, without occupying the attention, and engaging the studies of the remotest nations and the most distant posterity.

There is always a certain correspondence and proportion between the estimation in which an art is held, and the effects which it produces. In the flourishing periods of Athens and Rome eloquence was *power*. It was at once the instrument, and the spur to ambition. The talent of publick speaking was the key to the highest dignities; the passport to the supreme dominion of the state. The rod of Hermes was the sceptre of empire: the voice of oratory was the thunder of Jupiter. The most powerful of human passions was enlisted in the cause of eloquence, and eloquence in return was the most effectual auxiliary to the passions. In proportion to the wonders she atchieved, was the eagerness to acquire the faculties of this mighty magician. Oratory was taught as the occupation of a life. The course of instruction commenced with the infant in the cradle and continued to the meridian of manhood. It was made the fundamental object of education, and every other part of instruction for childhood and of discipline for youth was bent to its accommodation. Arts, science, letters, were to be thoroughly studied and investigated, upon the maxim, that an orator must be a man of universal knowledge. Moral duties were inculcated, because none but a good man could be an orator. Wisdom, learning, Virtue herself were estimated by their subserviency to the purposes of eloquence, and the whole duty of man consisted in making himself an accomplished publick speaker.

With the dissolution of Roman liberty, and the decline of Roman taste, the reputation and the excellency of the oratorical art fell alike into decay. Under the despotism of the Cæsars, the end of eloquence was perverted from persuasion to panegyrick, and all her faculties were soon palsied by the touch of corruption, or enervated by the impotence of servitude. Then succeeded the midnight of the monkish ages, when with the other liberal arts she slumbered in the profound darkness of the cloister.

At the revival of letters in modern Europe, eloquence, together with her sister muses awoke, and shook the poppies from her brow. But their torpors still tingled in her veins. In the interval, her voice was gone; her favourite languages were extinct; her organs were no longer attuned to harmony, and her hearers could no longer understand her speech. The discordant jargon of feudal anarchy had banished the musical dialects, in which she had always delighted. The theatres of her former triumphs were either deserted, or they were filled with the babblers of sophistry and chicane. She shrunk intuitively from the forum, for the last object she remembered to have seen there, was the head of her darling Cicero, planted upon the rostrum. She ascended the tribunals of justice; there she found her child, Persuasion, manacled and pinioned by the letter of the law; there she beheld an image of herself, stammering in barbarous Latin, and staggering under the lumber of a thousand volumes. Her heart fainted within her: she lost all confidence in herself: together with her irresistible powers, she lost proportionably the consideration of the world, until, instead of comprizing the whole system of publick education, she found herself excluded from the circle of sciences, and declared an outlaw from the realms of learning. She was not, however, doomed to eternal silence. With the progress of freedom and of liberal science in various parts of modern Europe, she obtained access to mingle in the deliberations of their parliaments. With labour and difficulty she learned their languages, and lent her aid in giving them form and polish. But she has never recovered the graces of her former beauty, nor the energies of her ancient vigour. The immeasurable superiority of ancient over modern oratory is one of the most remarkable circumstances, which offer themselves to the scrutiny of reflecting minds, and it is in the languages, the institutions, and the manners of modern Europe, that the solution of a phenomenon, so extraordinary, must be sought. The assemblies of the people, of the select councils, or of the senate in Athens and Rome were held for the purpose of real deliberation. The fate of measures was not decided before they were proposed. Eloquence produced a powerful effect, not only upon the minds of the hearers, but upon the issue of the deliberation. In the only countries of modern Europe, where the semblance of deliberative assemblies has been preserved, corruption, here in the form of executive influence, there in the guise of party spirit, by introducing a more compendious mode of securing decisions, has crippled the sublimest efforts of oratory, and the votes upon questions of magnitude to the interest of nations are all told, long before the questions themselves are submitted to discussion. Hence those nations, which for ages have gloried in the devotion to literature, science, and the arts, have never been able to exhibit a specimen of deliberative oratory, that can bear a comparison with those, transmitted down to us from antiquity.

Religion indeed has opened one new avenue to the career of eloquence. Amidst the sacrifices of paganism to her three hundred thousand gods, amidst her sagacious and solemn consultations in the entrails of slaughtered brutes, in the flight of birds, and the feeding of fowls, it had never entered her imagination to call upon the pontiff, the haruspex, or the augur, for discourses to the people, upon the nature of their duties to their maker, their fellow-mortals, and themselves. This was an idea too august to be mingled with the absurd and ridiculous, or profligate and barbarous rites of her deplorable superstition. It is an institution for which mankind are indebted to christianity; introduced by the Founder himself of this divine religion, and in every point of view worthy of its high original.

Its effects have been to soften the tempers and purify the morals of mankind; not in so high a degree as benevolence could wish, but enough to call forth our strains of warmest gratitude to that good being, who provides us with the means of promoting our own felicity, and gives us power to stand, though leaving us free to fall. Here then is an unbounded and inexhaustible field for eloquence, never explored by the ancient orators, and here alone have the modern Europeans cultivated the art with much success. In vain should we enter the halls of justice, in vain should we listen to the debates of senates for strains of oratory worthy of remembrance, beyond the duration of the occasion which called them forth. The art of embalming thought by oratory, like that of embalming bodies by aromaticks, would have perished but for the exercises of religion. These alone have in the latter ages furnished discourses, which remind us, that eloquence is yet a faculty of the human mind.

Among the causes, which have contributed thus to depress the oratory of modern times, must be numbered the indifference, with which it has been treated, as an article of education. The ancients had fostered an opinion, that this talent was in a more than usual degree the creature of discipline; and it is one of the maxims, handed down to us as the result of their experience, that men must be born to poetry and bred to eloquence: that the bard is always the child of nature, and the orator always the issue of instruction. This doctrine seems to be not entirely without foundation, but was by them carried in both its parts to an extravagant excess.

The foundations for the oratorical talent, as well as those of the poetical faculty, must be laid in the bounties of nature; and as the Muse in Homer, impartial in her distribution of good and evil, struck the bard with blindness, when she gave him the powers of song, her Sister not unfrequently, by a like mixture of tenderness and rigour, bestows the blessing of wisdom, while she refuses the readiness of utterance. Without entering however into a disquisition, which would lead me far beyond the limits of this occasion, I may remark, that the modern Europeans have run into the adverse extreme, and appear, during a considerable period, in their system of publick education, to have passed upon eloquence a sentence of proscription. Even when they studied *Rhetorick* as a theory, they neglected *Oratory* as an art; and while assiduously unfolding to their pupils the bright displays of Greek and Roman eloquence, they never attempted to make them eloquent themselves. Of the prevailing indifference to this department of human learning, no stronger evidence could be offered, than the circumstances under which we are assembled.

Nearly two centuries have elapsed since the foundation of this university. There never existed a people more anxious to bestow upon their children the advantages of education, than our venerable forefathers; and the name of Harvard is coeval with the first settlement of New-England. Their immediate and remote descendants down to this day have inherited and transmitted the same laudable ardour, and numerous foundations of various kinds attest their attachment to science and literature: yet so far have rhetorick and oratory been from enjoying a pre-eminence in their system of education, that they are now, for the first time, made a separate branch of instruction; and I stand here to assume the duties of the first instructor. The establishment of an institution for the purpose was reserved to the name of BOYLSTON: a name, which, if publick benefits can impart a title to remembrance, New-England will not easily forget: a name, to the benevolence, publick spirit, and genuine patriotism of which, this university, the neighbouring metropolis, and this whole nation have long had, and still have, many reasons to attest: a name, less distinguished by stations of splendour, than by deeds of virtue; and better known to this people by blessings enjoyed, than by favours granted: a name in fine, which, if not encircled with the external radiance of popularity, beams, brightly beams, with the inward lustre of beneficence. The institution itself is not of a recent date. One generation of mankind, according to the usual estimates of human life, has gone by, since the donation of Nicholas Boylston constituted the fund for the support of this professorship. The misfortunes which befel the university, unavoidably consequent upon our revolution, and various other causes, have concurred in delaying the execution of his intentions until the present time; and even now they have the prospect of little more than honest zeal for their accomplishment.

In reflecting upon the nature of the duties I undertake, a consciousness of deficiency for the task of their performance, dwells upon my mind; which, however ungraciously it may come from my lips, after accepting the appointment with which I am honoured, I yet cannot forbear to expresss. Though the course of my life has led me to witness the practice of this art in various forms, and though its theory has sometimes attracted my attention, yet my acquaintance with both has been of a general nature; and I can presume neither to a profound investigation of the one, nor an extensive experience of the other. The habits of instruction too, are not familiar to me; and they constitute an art of little less difficulty and delicacy, than that of oratory itself: yet as the career must necessarily be new by whomsoever it should here be explored, and as it leads to a course of pleasing speculations and studies, I shall rely upon the indulgence of the friends and patrons to this seminary, towards well-meant endeavours, and assume with diffidence the discharge of the functions allotted to the institution. In the theory of the art, and the principles of exposition, novelty will not be expected; nor is it perhaps to be desired. A subject, which has exhausted the genius of Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian, can neither require nor admit much additional illustration. To select, combine, and apply their precepts, is the only duty left for their followers of all succeeding times, and to obtain a perfect familiarity with their instructions, is to arrive at the mastery of the art. For effecting this purpose, the teacher can do little more than second the ardour and assiduity of the scholar. In the generous thirst for useful knowledge, in the honourable emulation of excellence, which distinguishes the students of this university, I trust to find an apology for the deficiencies of the lecturer. The richness of the soil will compensate for the unskilfulness of the tillage.

Sons of Harvard! you who are ascending with painful step and persevering toil the eminence of science to prepare yourselves for the various functions and employments of the world before you, it cannot be necessary to urge upon *you* the importance of the art, concerning which I am speaking. Is it the purpose of your future life to minister in the temples of Almighty God, to be the messenger of heaven upon earth, to enlighten with the torch of eternal truth the path of your fellow-mortals to brighter worlds? remember the reason assigned for the appointment of Aaron to that ministry, which you purpose to assume upon yourself....*I know that he can ſpeak well;* and, in this testimonial of Omnipotence, receive the injunction of your duty. Is your intention to devote the labours of your maturity to the cause of justice; to defend the persons, the property, and the fame of your fellow citizens from the open assaults of violence, and the secret encroachments of fraud? fill the fountains of your eloquence from inexhaustible sources, that their streams, when they shall begin to flow, may themselves prove inexhaustible. Is there among you a youth, whose bosom burns with the fires of honourable ambition; who aspires to immortalize his name by the extent and importance of his services to his country; whose visions of futurity glow with the hope of presiding in her councils, of directing her affairs, of appearing to future ages on the rolls of fame, as her ornament and pride? let him catch from the relicks of ancient oratory those unresisted powers, which mould the mind of man to the will of the speaker, and yield the the guidance of a nation to the dominion of the voice.

Under governments purely republican, where every citizen has a deep interest in the affairs of the nation, and in some form of publick assembly or other, has the means and opportunity of delivering his opinions, and of communicating his sentiments by speech; where government itself has no arms but those of persuasion; where prejudice has not acquired an uncontroled ascendency, and faction is yet confined within the barriers of peace, the voice of eloquence will not be heard in vain. March then with firm, with steady, with undeviating step, to the prize of your high calling. Gather fragrance from the whole paradise of science, and learn to distil from your lips all the honies of persuasion. Consecrate, above all, the faculties of your life to the cause of truth, of freedom, and of humanity. So shall your country ever gladden at the sound of your voice, and every talent, added to your accomplishments, become another blessing to mankind.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, England.

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.

PLATO, de Legib. IV.

Continued from page 243.

The life of a literary man seldom furnishes the variety of incidents which enlivens narration, and renders biography entertaining. However useful the labours of the learned, their lives are generally spent in their libraries, and a catalogue of their works frequently forms their history. This, however, was not wholly the case with Dr. Bentley. His days were not consumed merely in classical studies, or in literary pursuits. Soon after the republication of his answer to Boyle, in the year 1700, he was presented by the Crown to the Mastership of Trinity College, Cambridge, which was then vacant by the death of Dr. Montague. This proof of royal favour rendered it necessary for him to allot a considerable portion of his time to business, and to the affairs of the university. He now resigned the prebendary of Worcester; but on June 12, 1701, he was collated archdeacon of Ely.

In 1706, Julius Pollux was published, under the direction of Hemsterhuis, who wrote the preface, and the notes to the three last books. This work was begun by Lederlin, and what was left unfinished he completed. Hemsterhuis, at this time, was a very young man, but by this performance he acquired considerable reputation. Bentley was much pleased with so early a display of Greek erudition, and in a letter to him, communicated his corrections of the passages of the comick writers, which Pollux had quoted. The circumstance is related very particularly in Ruhnkenius's *Elogium Tiberii Hemsterhusii.*

"When the learned Lederlin declined completing the edition of Julius Pollux, which was preparing at Amsterdam, application was made to Hemsterhuis, whose erudition was supposed equal to the undertaking. Instigated by the advice of Grevius, he assumed the charge of this work, and his annotations, which, though youthful, were the production of such a youth as Hemsterhuis, immediately turned the eyes of all the learned towards their author.

"At such an age, few writers regard their own productions with contempt. He was sufficiently pleased with the performance. A short time, however, after the publication of the work, he received a letter from Richard Bentley, the Aristarchus of Britain, in which his labours with regard to Pollux were mentioned in terms of high commendation. In the same pacquet also, the doctor inserted his own corrections of the passages, which Pollux had quoted from the comick writers, to illustrate and establish his descriptions.

"Hemsterhuis himself had bestowed great attention on these citations, as he well knew their consequence. When he perused Bentley's animadversions, he perceived that every difficulty was explained, as if by inspiration, and was convinced, that his own time had been spent in vain, and that his own conjectures were frivolous.

"What effect did this letter produce? Hemsterhuis was so much hurt, and so much displeased with himself, that he determined to abandon wholly the study of Greek literature; and for some months he did not dare to open the works of an author in that language."

Ruhnkenius then bestows very just encomiums upon him, for the candour and openness with which he used to relate this story to his scholars, and in conversation. He thus proceeds:

"Hemsterhuis, however, when reflection succeeded vexation, perceived that he had improperly placed his abilities, young as he was, in competition with those of a veteran critick, who held the highest rank; and was soon reconciled to himself, and to his former studies. So powerful, however, was the effect of Bentley's advice, that he determined not to trust himself in the dangerous paths of conjecture or criticism, until he had stored his mind with a comprehensive knowledge of every various art and science. He chose his counsellor, as the great object of his imitation. He looked up to him with the fondest admiration: placed him continually before his eyes; and preferred him to every other critick. Nor did he conceal his resentment, if, in his presence, the envious carped at the wonderful talents of this great man, at which they could not possibly arrive."

In the year 1709, when Davis published Cicero's *Tusculanæ Quæstiones*, Dr. Bentley added his annotations to the edition. But on account of some reflections which have been represented as not very liberal, when this work was republished, Davis omitted the doctor's remarks. They were, however, again inserted, when the book was reprinted in 1738.

From the Amsterdam press, in 1710, was published Kuster's edition of Aristophanes. Two of the plays were enriched with the annotations of Bentley; which are not very elaborate, but in many instances discover that acumen and penetration, which characterises his critical disquisitions.

During this period, Le Clerc ranked among the first literary characters. He had distinguished himself by publishing editions of some classical writers, particularly Hesiod, with notes and a Latin translation. His theological researches, though he is sometimes too daring, had greatly increased his rising reputation; and his Art of Criticism, written in Latin, had been much commended. His *Epistolæ criticæ*, to some of our bishops, and the active part, which he was supposed to take in some of the foreign journals, had rendered his abilities as an author very generally known in England. In such high estimation, indeed, was he held by lord Hallifax, that he employed his interest with some of the nobility, and men in power, in his favour. His chief wish was, that some considerable church preferment, and even a bishoprick, might be offered to Le Clerc, in order to allure him to come and settle near our metropolis.

The bishops did not approve this design. They all esteemed him for his learning and abilities, but as his principles were known to be not very orthodox, and his opinions very free, they opposed the measure. The opposition reflects great credit on the bench, as, by several articles in his *Bibliotheque*, he had disseminated the poison of free-thinking over the continent, by his account of several English publications.

While the invitation to Le Clerc was a general subject of conversation, he published the fragments of Menander and Philemon, in one octavo volume, at Amsterdam, 1709.

Soon after, the intention of lord Hallifax was mentioned, at archbishop Tennison's, while Bentley and some other men of learning were present. Le Clerc's title to the proffered honours was examined: his literary character was discussed; among them the late publication of the fragments of the two comick writers was of course included. Bentley asserted immediately, that such an edition was a disgrace to a scholar, and that it was replete with glaring errours.

The company instantly urged the doctor to attack it; but he declined the task, as he had long held a correspondence with Le Clerc. At length, however, the instigations of his friends prevailed, and he told them that he would soon convince the world, that the author of *Ars Critica* did not possess that depth of erudition, which had been ascribed to him by the generality of readers.

Bentley soon completed his design; on account, however, of his former intimacy with Le Clerc, he wished his name to be concealed. He, therefore, styled himself, in the title-page, Phileleutherus Lipsiensis; and intrusted the manuscript to Hare, with whom he then lived in habits of the greatest intimacy. By his interest, as he was chaplain general to the army, the book was to be transmitted in the duke of Marlborough's pacquet to Burman, with a note, desiring him to publish it, and giving him liberty to write either a dedication, or a preface, as he felt inclined.

Hare discharged the office, as he supposed, with great secresy and exactness. By some unaccountable blunder, however, the papers were never put into the duke's pacquet; but after they had passed through several hands, a Burgomaster at Amsterdam by accident received the manuscript. He immedietely shewed it to Toland, who was then in Holland. He directly pronounced the notes to be the production of Bentley, and, probably, by his means they were afterwards conveyed entire to Peter Burman, with the direction which consigned them to his care, and recommended to him the office of publisher.

By Burman, accordingly, these remarks were edited, with a long preface, and an address, in Latin verse, to the *manes* of Menander and Philemon. The preface is written in a strain of the most virulent abuse against Le Clerc, who was his bitter enemy. To the remarks of Bentley, it offers some additions; among which a few fragments of Menander and Philemon, which had escaped the researches of the too negligent collector, may be considered as the most important; tho' his critical annotations are not destitute of acumen.

Le Clerc undoubtedly merited reprehension. Never, perhaps, was an ancient author published in so careless a manner. Metrical defects, even in the common Iambick measure, which required little sagacity to correct, appear almost in every fragment. Besides these, few pages are wholly free from other errours of different kinds, which display at least unpardonable negligence, and were imputed by Bentley to ignorance.

Bentley's emendations were the production of a mind highly vigorous, and stored with the most exquisite and diversified erudition. His knowledge of the Greek language, and familiar acquaintance with their forms of speech and with their metres, were displayed with uncommon brilliancy. The reputation which he had acquired by his epistle on Malela, and the dissertation on Phalaris, immediately discovered the author of these corrections. Burman, in his preface, asserted, that there were not above three or four persons in the whole republick of letters, to whom they could be ascribed, and in the foreign journals they were immediately assigned to their real author.

The learned Dawes, in his Miscell. Critic. says, that Bentley, in this performance, has passed over above a hundred of Le Clerc's mistakes, at the same time that he is guilty of as many himself. To this assertion too much credit should not be given; for it is a *mere* assertion. It may be attributed in a great measure to the unfriendly sentiments which Dawes entertained towards the writings of this great critick. These sentiments Burgess, the ingenious editor of his work, has jusly censured, and conjectured, with much probability, that they arose from Dawes's residence at Cambridge, while Bentley's measures, as master of Trinity-College, met with such violent opposition. He, perhaps, did not remain passive in these disputes, as we may conjecture from the eagerness with which he endeavoured, in his learned work, to blast the laurels which had so long adorned the brow of the great Bentley.

Let it not be supposed, however, that this pamphlet is to be considered as a complete examination of all the fragments of Menander and Philemon, or that it is absolutely faultless. Some of its errours have been corrected by our learned countryman Toup, in his notes on Suidas; and by Lambert Bos, a few years after its publication, in his *Animadversiones ad Scriptores quosdam Graecos*. These, however, are but few:

"Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto!"

And it should be remembered, that authors seldom agree in conjectural criticism, and that the correction of fragments is very hazardous.

If Bentley had disputed with Le Clerc, about a point which could be determined by universality of knowledge, the palm must have been assigned to the latter. In the general mass of erudition the world has seldom seen Le Clerc's superiour; and those who are acquainted with his works will not easily find an author who has displayed such diversified talents, and written with acknowledged abilities on so many and such a variety of subjects.

For the exposure, however, of Le Clerc's ignorance and negligence, in the present instance, Bentley was conspicuously calculated. At an early period of his life, he had formed a scheme of publishing a collection of the remains of the Greek poets, which lie scattered through the works of ancient writers. Those who are acquainted with the elegances which several of these fragments contain, and with Bentley's critical acumen, will unite in lamenting that he never executed his design. Besides this circumstance, which brought him ready armed into the field, his enemy was exposed in his weakest quarter. To criticism, indeed, about Hellenisms, and metrical disquisitions, Le Clerc was almost a stranger, while Bentley was uncommonly skilful in these discussions, and far surpassed all his contemporaries.

To be continued.

For the Anthology.

THE importance and utility of arts and science are too obvious to admit of doubt or argument; but perhaps no truth, so well established, has been so little regarded by the people of this country. The many avenues to riches, which the circumstances of the times have opened, are thronged with an eagerness, that engages every faculty; and the great end, for which alone wealth is desirable, is absorbed in the pursuit and augmentation of the means. It is true, that to make near approaches to perfection in the arts, especially the imitative ones, is one of the last results of opulence and power; but whether America has made those advances, which her ability and opportunities have afforded, is a question well worth serious consideration, if she has any ambition to rank with the nations of Europe in any other respect than that of commercial speculation. Her vessels spread their sails over the ocean, visit every port, and bring home treasures from every quarter of the globe; her cities flourish and increase with unprecedented rapidity, many of their inhabitants have acquired the fortunes of princes, and riches are diffused among the people. The luxuries, first desired by men suddenly possessed of wealth are generally coarse and gaudy; and will continually become more coarse, sensual, and depraved, unless a taste is excited for refined and elegant pleasures; unless those arts are more generally honoured and encouraged, whose natural tendency is to raise us above the gratifications of sense, to produce a love of beauty and order, a delicacy of feeling, an enlightened liberality of sentiment, and that high polish of exteriour manners, which, while it charms with its brilliance and soothes with its softness, yet retains the integrity of virtue and the purity of honour.

That many must be employed in mere bodily labour, is requisite to the existence of social beings, and it is as wisely ordered, as it is beneficial and necessary; yet if those, whom fortune has exempted from toil, neglect to acquire knowledge and cultivate taste, the consequence must be a dull and noxious stagnation of every nobler faculty; a general prevalence of selfish and barbarous customs: but if the many who now possess not only competence, but affluence, could be induced to believe, that the incessant pursuit of gain was not the sole business of life; and that some portion of time and money might be usefully employed in acquiring taste and fostering of genius, they might elevate themselves unto a rank of just superiority; the respect they might claim would be paid with cheerfulness, and they would be looked up to with that veneration, which is due to accomplished minds, superiour talents, and legitimate grandeur: the genial rays of polished life would be reflected and diffused through every subordinate class of society; the mechanick, the labourer, the hind that clears the forest and first opens the bosom of the earth, would catch the softening gleam of humanity, and when the hours of toil were over, would learn to be satisfied with innocent recreations, rather than seek the inebriety of taverns, or the tumultuous discord of popular meetings.

To advise the cultivation of taste, and the attainment of that discriminating knowledge, which enables its possessor to estimate justly the merits of an artist and the productions of art, particularly the art of painting, may sound strange to some, who have indulged themselves in fancying, that the people of this country have *a natural genius* for this art; to prove which belief, they will say, that we can go into few houses without seeing pictures, and that some of the first modern painters are natives of America,...a land famous for the production of self-taught geniuses. It is true, that prints and pictures, being considered as part of the furniture of a house, few that can furnish houses, neglect to embellish them in this manner; but the common and motley collections, we generally find, shew plainly, that fashionable decoration is the only object; and that taste is neither consulted in the selection, nor gratified by the exhibition. Of self-taught genius, and the wonders it has performed; the encouragement it has met with, and the recommendation it carries with it, we have heard enough, from those who have never thought on the subject, to sicken every one, who has extended his ideas far enough to conceive the extent of art, who knows how little can be done by one mind towards that degree of excellence, which requires the combined efforts of many, and the progressive experience of ages. "Ars longa, vita brevis," is a sentence we seem to have forgotten, or never to have known; hence that praise has been lavished on those, who have made shift to learn their letters without going to school, which could only have been deserved by the student, far advanced in academical knowledge; hence emulation, instead of being excited to great attempts, and deep researches, has been arrested in the beginning of the course, sat down contented with indiscriminate applause it received for trifles, made no farther advances, and the art itself is even to be begun. This country has indeed given birth to West and Stewart, Copely and Trumbull; names that stand in the first rank of European artists; but these were not self-taught, the shoots of skill and dexterity were engrafted on them in another country, where their natural talents were nourished and carefully raised to maturity: had they continued here, they never would have got beyond the rudiments of their profession, and must have been content with that portion of short-lived praise, which usually falls to the lot of a self-taught genius. These observations are not made to discourage young men of talents who are inclined to exert them in the pursuit of art; but to warn them of the evil consequences, which result from mistaking the voice of common praise, for the commendation of the judicious; to induce them to give some other direction to their abilities; or go where the arts flourish in maturity, where the works of the great masters may be studied, where schools are formed, and genius safely guided in the road to excellence.

The attempts that have been made, and are now making at Philadelphia and New-York, to establish schools of painting, are, in the present state of the country, exceedingly premature; and must inevitably prove futile and nugatory. The ground must be cleared, and opened to the vivifying ray, must be weeded and dressed, the soil made rich by patient industry, before the seeds of delicate flowers can be sown; and then, incessant care, attention, and skill is necessary to perfect the gay parterre, which is to gratify the smell with fragrance, and the sight with varied beauty also; before we can form schools of art, it is necessary, by previous cultivation, to prepare the minds of people to receive and nourish the seeds of taste; then schools may be established on solid foundations, possessed of the means of instruction, and conducted by able professors.

If these few ideas, hastily thrown together, are favourably received by your readers, the subject shall be continued. E. E.

June 20.

SILVA, *No.* 16.

Illic purpureis tecta rosariis
Omnis fragrat humus, calthaque pinguis
Et molles violas et tenues crocos
Fundit fonticulis uda fugacibus.——PRUDENTIUS.

TRANSLATORS.

TRANSLATORS are almost always either too close or too loose. The metaphrast "hunts with his author in couples;" the paraphrast spreads his wings, so boldly, that he leaves his author. Perhaps I am worse than paradoxical, when I assert that, as a translator, Burke would have been close, and Johnson loose. The one would have dilated and attenuated; the other would have compressed and condensed. Johnson was more like Dryden; Burke more like Pope. The English Æneid is a monarch, decked in loose, wanton robes; his air high and majestick; his sceptre sparkles with gems; the mild, melting rays of soft indulgent mercy flow from his crown. The English Iliad is a warriour, girded in close and succinct armour; whose step is firm and manly; whose sword glitters to the sun; from whose helmet leap the fierce and scorching beams of stern, relentless justice.

JOURNALS.

A GENTLEMAN, whom I honour and respect as a patriot and a statesman, whom I love and venerate as a patron and friend, once told me, that no man was ever in the habit of keeping a regular journal of his life, who did not attain to some considerable eminence in society. Gibbon, by keeping a journal, has at least, tacitly confessed, that without it, his learning would have been little better than useless; a dead, inert, unproductive mass of thoughts, lying in heaps, "corrupting in their fertility;" and now where is the man who will dare to condemn, as a childish, idle amusement, what the example of this *grand monarque* of literature authorizes us to consider as a manly, necessary duty?

PINDAR AND SECUNDUS.

PINDAR, born at Thebes, and Secundus, a native of the Hague, are two illustrious instances to shew that genius is above the influence of climate. The thick, deadening fogs of Bœotia, the cold, blasting dews of Holland produced no other effect, than to heighten the great conceptions of the former, and to sweeten the tender, soft sentiments of the latter. The kisses of Secundus charm into coldness the angry, and subdue the vindictive to indifference; they soften to kindness the most indifferent, and melt the coldest into love. The odes of Pindar, who can read without feeling his imagination kindle into enthusiasm?

BURNS.

BURNS is one of the few authors, whom I am never too weary or too idle to read. Why does the Ayrshire bard always charm? To what is it owing, that the oftener I read the *Cotter's Saturday Night*, the more my kindly, gentle affections ripen, and refine. Learning he most certainly wanted; but as Dryden said of "nature's darling child," the immortal bard of Avon, Burns needed not the spectacle of books to read nature. He looked inwards, and he found her there. God had also given him a soul, which the heavy, reluctant clouds of low birth and narrow fortune could not darken.

Cauld blew the bitter-biting north
Upon thy early humble birth,
Yet cheerfully thou glented forth
Amid the storm.

Burns is so different from any of his cotemporaries, that if I were required to point out a poet, who in any two respects resembles him, I should hesitate long, I fear to no purpose. Bruce may perhaps be more tender and delicate; but he moves no laughter; he thrills no horrour; his wit is filtered through too much learning; it trickles meagre and rapid. His sublimity is always debased by some circumstance of meanness. I do not say that Bruce wants genius: far from it; he does not want it. He is full of genius. His poetry glows with the warmest words, and sparkles with the brightest thoughts of a warm, glowing imagination, of a bright, sparkling fancy.

Compared with Burns, Cowper dwindles...I am almost afraid to speak my opinion; the ink hardly moves through my pen; it turns pale and seems to sicken when I say, that compared with Burns, Cowper shrinks into nothing. The Nine may have loved Cowper as well as Burns. Indeed, their affection for the former was at first tenderer, perhaps warmer, than for the latter; but fondness is poorly repaid. Love is sorrily rewarded with esteem or respect. Love, unless it kindles love, flashes, and is gone forever. Fondness, unless it excite fondness, soon deadens into indifference. What were the awkward, ceremonious bows of Cowper, compared to the "feltering, ardent kisses" of Burns? What were a modest, timorous Englishman's professions of regard, compared to the feelings of an open, honest Scotchman, who, in protestations of gratitude, sighed his very soul?

BEN JONSON AND COWPER.

In his second Masque of Beauty, the counterpart of his first of Blackness, Ben Jonson introduces and presents Boreas,..."In a robe of russet and white mixt...fuled and bagged, his hair, and beard rough and horride...his wings gray and full of snow and ycicles...and in his hand a leaf-lesse branch, laden with ycicles." From this representation of Boreas, Cowper without doubt caught the leading distinguishing images and circumstances of his beautiful personification of Winter.

Oh Winter, ruler of th' inverted year,
Thy scatter'd hair with sleet like ashes fill'd,
Thy breath congeal'd upon thy lips, thy cheeks
Fring'd with a beard made white with other snows
Than those of age, thy forehead wrapt in clouds,
A leafless branch thy sceptre, and thy throne
A sliding car, indebted to no wheels,
But urged by storms along its slipp'ry way,
I love thee all unlovely as thou seem'st,
And dreaded as thou art! &c.

MONITORY POEMS AND PROVERBS OF SOLOMON.

The monitory poems of Phocylides clearly recognizes the immortality of the soul, while the "Proverbs of Solomon" hardly hint at this great doctrine of natural religion. I mention this fact, because it is curious, and little known. The Bishop of Gloucester is my authority.

—

POPE AND GRAY.

Gray, in his poem on the Pleasures of Vicissitude, has happily imitated, perhaps he has more than equalled, a fine passage in the second epistle of Pope's Essay on Man.

Love, hope, and joy, fair pleasure's smiling train;
Hate, fear, and grief, the family of pain:
These mix'd with art, and to due bounds confin'd,
Make and maintain the balance of the mind;
The lights and shades, whose well-accorded strife
Gives all the strength and colour of our life.
POPE.

The hues of bliss more brightly glow,
Chastised by sabler tints of woe,
And blended firm with artful strife
The strength and harmony of life.
GRAY.

—

"*Wilt thou break a leaf driven to and fro?*" This touching question of Job came with all its force into my mind, as I was yesterday sauntering through the mall, and what can be more pathetick? A very old man was leaning upon his staff, as if weary. I asked him why, instead of standing in the sun, he did not sit beneath one of the elms. He raised his countenance to answer me: it was pensive, but not gloomy; a faint, melancholy smile gleamed from his eye, and gave his features the expression of tranquil resignation. He told me that the shade recalled his sorrows; I am, said he, alone...But why do I complain? I deserved nothing; I have lost all.—Feeling an interest in the man, I asked him what calamities had stripped him to poverty.—He began to collect his thoughts, and without a single word of complaint, related the events of his life. He had lived seventy years, and not a day ever passed without bringing some new misfortune. His voice, while he was speaking, was, for the most part, calm and even; but when he told me of the death of his wife and only daughter, his utterance was choaked. His limbs are now palsied, his eyes are dim, his ears are thick. But though his senses are leaving him, he is not querulous; his God, he knows, is love. Surely there is another state. Who does not acknowledge, that unrepining patience deserves a reward higher, than earth can give? There is indeed a world, where sorrow and sighing shall flee away, where tears shall be turned into joy.

—

LEVITIES.

In the province of Gascoigne in France the natives substitute the letters B and V for each other; which occasioned Joseph Scaliger to say of them...Felices populi quibus *bibere* est *vivere*.

We have often heard the anecdote of the boy, who being sent by his master to *h*eat his breakfast, construed the direction into an order to *eat* it, on the authority of the old pedagogues, that "*H was not a letter.*" The lad was not without law on his side. In the case of Shelbury, vs. Bupard. (Cro. Eliz. 172.) in error, it was moved, that the writ of error should abate for a variance between the writ and record, "for that the record was "of lands in Colc*h*ester and the "writ supposeth the lands to be "in Colcester;" but it was held to be no variance, because "*H non* "*est litera, sed aspiratio.*" Cro. Eliz. 198. Case 18.

POETRY.

ORIGINAL.

For the Anthology.

EPISTLE

To **Theophilus Parsons**—*upon his accepting the Appointment of Chief Juſtice of the Supreme Judicial Court of Maſſachuſetts.*

AND does that mind, which every mind excels,
Quit the proud path where fame triumphant dwells?
While at her side prolifick fortune stands,
And showers her bounty with unsparing hands,
Bids but thy genius ask, and all obey....
Why fling the doubly proffer'd boon away?
For the dull *bench* the inspiring *robe* disclaim?
False to thyself, to fortune, and to fame!

You, like an eastern monarch, reign'd alone,
Nor could the aspiring *brother* reach thy throne;
Or, like a giant, towering o'er thy kind,
More strong than monarchs forced the sway of mind;
But *now*, uncheer'd by fortune's vertick rays,
Tedious and tame will low'r thy shadowy days,
Condemn'd to heed the ever-during plea,
Which endless folly, blundering, pours on thee;
Or, stifling all thy suffering heart's desire,
With faultering accent bid the wretch expire;
Even him whose wrongs awake the feeling sigh,
Him may *unseeing* justice doom to die.—
Such is thy fate.—With pain'd and patient ear,
The hard monotony of words to bear;
Misguided errour, wandering far from sense,
Pride's pompous phrase, and passion's rude pretence,
Await thee now, from morn's unwelcome ray
To the slow shadows of retreating day.
What though some soaring genius, true to thine,
In mental radiance bid the *Forum* shine,
Deep, fervid, full, with sacred science fraught,
And all the graced pre-eminence of thought,
Forceful as reason in her high career,
Yet falls, like musick, on the astonished ear,
When, as a charm, the fluent strain is found
To bid enamour'd silence hover round,
Calling from thee that smile, which seems to speak,
Gives the delighted flush to pass thy cheek:—
More dark will seem the void his pause supplies,
More bleak the wild that mocks thy searching eyes.

Small is the meed the uncherish'd Muse can give,
'Tis thine to honour, and thy praise will live,
Still thou must shine, and with unequall'd rays,
The undying Mansfield of departed days;
On thee will Genius rest her votive eyes,
Led by thy light another Parsons rise.
Guide of the laws! ne'er to thy country lost,
Thine is the wrong...but her's the boon and boast.

For the Anthology.

DEUS.

DEI supremo percita flamine
Mentem voluntas extimulat meam;
Hinc per negatum tentat alta
Dædalius itor ire ceris.

Audetque coeli non memorabile
Metare Numen, principio carens

Et fine, diffinire Musae
Exiguæ breviore gyro.

Origo rerum et terminis omnium,
Origo, fons et principium sui,
Suique finis, terminusque;
Principio sine terminoque.

Ubique *Totus*; tempore in omnibus
Omni quiescens ipse Deus locis,
Partes in omnes distributus,
Integer usque manens ubique.

Nec comprehensum ullis regionibus,
Ullisve clausum limitibus loca
Tenent, sed omnis liber omne
Diditus in spatium vagatur.

Illius alta est velle potentia,
Opus voluntas invariabilis,
Et magnus absque est quantitate,
Atque bonus sine qualitate.

Quod dicit, uno tempore perficit;
Mirere fiat vox, vel opus prius;
Cum dixit, en, cum voce cuncta
Universa simul creata.

Cuncta intuetur, perspicit omnia,
Atque in sua unus, solus est omnia
Quæ sunt, fuerunt et futura;
Prævidet ipse perennitate.

Atque ipse plenus, cuncta replet sui,
Et semper idem. Sustinet omnia,
Et fert, monetque amplectiturque,
Atque supercilio gubernat.

Te, te oro; tandem respice me bonus,
Tibique nodo junge adamantino;
Id namque solum, unumque, et omne
Reddere quod potis beatos.

Quicunque junxit se tibi, et altius
Uni adhærescit, continet omnia.
Ipsumque te, qui sis futurus
Omnibus omnia sub ministras.

Laboriosis tu vigor inclytus
Tu portus alto naufragantibus;
Tu fons perennis perstrepentis
Qui latices salientis ardet.

Tu summa nostris pectoribus quies
Tranquillitasque et pax placidissima;
Tu mensus es rerum modusque,
Tu species et amata forma.

Tu meta, pondus, tu numerus, decor;
Tuque ordo, tu pax atque honor, atque
amor,
Cunctus, salusque et vita, et aucta
Nectare et ambrosia voluptas.

Tu verus altæ fons sapientiæ,
Tu vera lux, tu lex venerabilis,
Tu certa spes, tuque æterna
Et ratio, et vita, veritasque.

Decus jubarque, et lumen amabile,
Et lumen almum atque inviolabile,
Tu summa summarum. Quid ultra?
Maximus, optimus, unus, idem.

L.

SELECTED.

THE AFRICAN.

By Rev. W. L. Bowles.

FAINT-gazing on the burning orb of day,
When Africk's injur'd son expiring lay,
His forehead cold, his labouring bosom bare,
His dewy temples, and his sable hair,
His poor companions kiss'd, and cry'd aloud,
Rejoicing, whilst his head in peace he bow'd:—

"Now thy long, long task is done,
Swiftly, brother, wilt thou run,
Ere to-morrow's golden beam
Glitter on thy parent stream,
Swiftly the delights to share,
The feast of joy which waits thee there:
Swiftly, brother, wilt thou ride
O'er the long and stormy tide,
Fleeter than the hurricane,
Till thou view those scenes again,
Where thy father's hut was rear'd,
Where thy mother's voice was heard;
Where thy infant brothers play'd
Beneath the fragrant citron shade;
Where through green savannahs wide
Cooling rivers silent glide,
Or the shrill sigarras sing
Ceaseless to their murmuring;
Where the dance, the festive song,
Of many a friend divided long,
Doom'd through stranger lands to roam,
Shall bid thy spirit welcome home!

"Fearless o'er the foaming tide
Again thy light canoe shall ride;
Fearless on the embattled plain
Thou shalt lift thy lance again;
Or, starting at the call of morn,
Wake the wild woods with thy horn;
Or, rushing down the mountain-slope,
O'ertake the nimble antelope;
Or lead the dance, 'mid blissful bands,
On cool Andracte's yellow sands;
Or, in th' embow'ring orange grove,
Tell to thy long-forsaken love

The wounds, the agony severe,
Thy patient spirit suffer'd here!

"Fear not now the tyrant's power—
Past is his insulting hour—
Mark no more the sullen trait
On slavery's brow of scorn and hate;
Hear no more the long sigh borne
Murmuring on the gales of morn!

"Go in peace—yet we remain
Far distant, toiling on in pain;
Ere the great Sun fire the skies
To our work of woe we rise;
And see each night, without a friend,
The world's great comforter descend!

"Tell our brethren, where ye meet,
Thus we toil with weary feet;
Yet tell them, that Love's gen'rous flame,
In joy, in wretchedness, the same,
In distant worlds was ne'er forgot—
And tell them, that we murmur not—
Tell them, though the pang will start,
And drain the life-blood from the heart—
Tell them, generous shame forbids
The tear to stain our burning lids!
Tell them, in weariness and want,
For our native hills we pant,
Where soon, from shame and sorrow free,
We hope in death to follow thee."

HYMN...BY BURNS.

Scene...A field of battle...time of the day, evening...the wounded and dying of the victorious army are supposed to join in the following song.

FAREWELL, thou fair day, thou green earth, and ye skies
Now gay with the bright setting sun;
Farewell loves and friendships, ye dear tender ties,
Our race of existence is run!

Thou grim king of terrors, thou life's gloomy foe,
Go, frighten the coward and slave;
Go, teach them to tremble, fell tyrant! but know,
No terrours hast thou to the brave!

Thou strik'st the dull peasant, he sinks in the dark,
Nor saves e'en the wreck of a name;
Thou strik'st the young hero, a glorious mark!
He falls in the blaze of his fame!

In the field of proud honour...our swords in our hands,
Our king and our country to save...
While victory shines on life's last ebbing sands,
O! who would not rest with the brave!

AN EPISTLE TO J. HILL, ESQ.

By Cowper.

DEAR Joseph—five and twenty years ago—
Alas, how time escapes!—'tis even so—
With frequent intercourse, and always sweet,
And always friendly, we were wont to cheat
A tedious hour, and now we never meet!
As some grave gentleman in Terence says,
('Twas therefore much the same in ancient days)
Good lack, we know not what to-morrow brings—
Strange fluctuation of all human things!
True. Changes will befall, and friends may part,
But distance only cannot change the heart:
And, were I call'd to prove the assertion true,
One proof should serve—a reference to you.
Whence comes it, then, that in the wane of life,
Though nothing have occurr'd to kindle strife,
We find the friends we fancied we had won,
Though num'rous once, reduc'd to few or none?
Can gold grow worthless that has stood the touch?
No—gold they seem'd, but they were never such.
Horatio's servant once, with bow and cringe,
Swinging the parlour-door upon its hinge,
Dreading a negative, and overaw'd
Lest he should trespass, begg'd to go abroad.
Go, fellow!—whither?—turning short about—
Nay—stay at home—you're always going out.
'Tis but a step, Sir, just at the street's end.—
For what?—An please you, Sir, to see a friend.
A friend! Horatio cried, and seem'd to start—
Yea, marry shalt thou, and with all my heart.—
And fetch my cloak; for, tho' the night be raw,
I'll see him too—the first I ever saw.
I knew the man, and knew his nature mild,
And was his plaything often when a child;
But somewhat at that moment pinch'd him close
Else he was seldom bitter or morose,
Perhaps, his confidence just then betray'd,
His grief might prompt him with the speech he made;
Perhaps 'twas mere good humour gave it birth,
The harmless play of pleasantry and mirth.
Howe'er it was, his language, in my mind,
Bespoke at least a man that knew mankind.
But, not to moralize too much, and strain
To prove an evil of which all complain,
(I hate long arguments, verbosely spun)
One story more, dear Hill, and I have done.
Once on a time an emp'ror, a wise man—
No matter where, in China or Japan—
Decreed, that whosoever should offend
Against the well-known duties of a friend,
Convicted once, should ever after wear
But half a coat, and show his bosom bare.
The punishment importing this, no doubt,
That all was naught within, and all found out.
Oh, happy Britain! we have not to fear
Such hard and arbitrary measure here;
Else, could a law like that which I relate
Once have the sanction of our triple state,
Some few, that I have known in days of old,
Would run most dreadful risk of catching cold;
While you, my friend, whatever wind should blow,
Might traverse England safely to and fro,
An honest man, close-buttoned to the chin,
Broad-cloth without, and a warm heart within.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 23.

An Enquiry into the Law Merchant of the United States; or Lex Mercatoria Americana, on several heads of commercial importance. Dedicated by permission to T. Jefferson, president of the United States. In two volumes. Vol. I.[*] New-York, Isaac Collins & Son, for Abraham & Arthur Stansbury, 1802. *8vo. pp.* 815.

If any general observation applies to American writers, it is that they are not careful, by learned diligence, by the study of approved works, and by repeated essays in private, to acquire an elevated standard of taste. Who among them has shewn, that his works are the images of that divine model, which had a previous existence in the mind of the author? To make a volume, something more is necessary, than manual labour. The mere manufacturers of books are less deserving of patronage, than the humblest artizans in society. They degrade the dignity of intellectual exertion. They write only for money, and they judge of the goodness of their work, as a shopkeeper of his cloth, by its saleable quality.

The work before us is modestly entitled, "An Enquiry into the Law Merchant of the United States." From the nature of commerce it is not capable of being regulated by the municipal laws of individual states, but it must be governed by a code, which is respected by all civilized nations, and denominated the *Law Merchant*.[*] In respect of the universality of this system, it may be considered as a portion of the law of nations; not indeed regulating the intercourse of independent states, but obligatory on the individuals of each state among themselves, and with the citizens of other states, in the multifarious transactions of trade and commerce. Men engaged in a similar pursuit would naturally observe similar rules of acting, and this of itself sufficiently accounts for the origin of a distinct code of laws for that vast portion of our species, who are employed in the acquisition of gain by buying and selling.

The laws of particular states, which relate to commerce, usually respect the collection of the impost. In a work therefore, which professes to treat of the commercial law of the United States, we should expect to find a digest of the statutes of congress, relating to this subject, with the constructions given to them by decisions in the federal courts, and more especially in the supreme court of the United States, together with no inconsiderable portion of the Law Merchant.

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[*] This work is by George Cains of New-York. The ſecond volume is not yet publiſhed.

[*] Lord Mansfield, ſpeaking, in the caſe of *Luke et al* v. *Lyde*. 2d Burr. 887, of the maritime law, which is a branch of the law of commerce, ſays: "The maritime law is not the law of a particular country, but the general law of nations: non erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis; alia nunc, alia poſthac; ſed et apud omnes gentes et omni tempore, una eademque lex obtinebit." Cic. Off. 3. This was a queſtion of freight between two Britiſh ſubjects. In expreſſing the opinion of the court, Lord Mansfield quoted the *Rhodian Laws*, the *Conſolato del Mere*, which is a Spaniſh work, the *Uſages and Cuſtoms of the Sea*, a French book, the *Laws of Wiſbury*, the *Hanſe-Town Laws*, Roccus *de Navibus et Naulo*, and the *Ordinance of Lewis the XIV*.

Accordingly we find, that the author in his I. chap. treats of the laws, which regulate that portion of the shipping of the United States, employed by the trading and mercantile part of the community. It contains an analysis of all the statutes relating to the title, use, and privileges of vessels, engaged either in the foreign, coasting, or fishing trades. In this chapter are some ingenious and valuable observations on the question, whether by a breach of our navigation laws the offence is inexpiable, and the property in the vessel or goods is thereby divested from the owners, so that a subsequent sale would convey no interest. Such forfeiture would arise from the policy of the navigation law, which might be defeated, if the property were safe in the hands even of a *bona fide* purchaser, for a good consideration.

The II. chap. treats of owners of ships.

The III. chap. on "commercial neutrality," treats, first, on articles contraband of war in all cases, and those which become so by an accidental combination of circumstances; secondly, on the reciprocal rights and duties of the neutral and the belligerent in cases of blockade; thirdly, on the trade which the neutral may carry on with belligerent nations; and lastly, on the right of visitation and search claimed by belligerents. It concludes with a general account of the proceedings in the admiralty in cases of prize. The natural situation of our country is highly favourable, both for peace & for commerce, and therefore the rights of neutrals to carry on commerce with other nations, which are at war, are to our citizens peculiarly interesting. They should be asserted with the authority due to reason and to the usages of nations heretofore, and with all the energy of national strength. A direct trade by neutrals between the colony and the mother country of a belligerent is contrary to the law of nations. But neutrals have heretofore been authorised to import the produce of a belligerent into their own territories, and to export it to any other, even to the mother country. Where this is done in strict conformity with good faith, without any attempt to prosecute, by a circuitous transportation, a commerce between the colony and the mother country, we conceive that the trade is authorised by the law of nations. That a neutral should be prohibited by a belligerent from prosecuting a commerce in war, because it is interdicted in peace, is most unreasonable. For a nation, as well as an individual, has the right to pursue its own interests, and to seize favourable opportunities, either for profit or for glory. Unless fraud is made manifest, we apprehend, that no belligerent may lawfully interrupt the neutral in the acquisition of the gain, which flows from his neutral position. This chapter is almost entirely taken from the celebrated Reports of Robinson in the Admiralty. We wish that the author had been more minute in that part of it, which relates to the forms and method of proceeding in the admiralty. Professional gentlemen in this country are generally deficient in their knowledge of this branch of legal science, and have access but to few sources of information on the subject.

In chapter IV. the author treats generally of masters of ships, as acting for themselves, as representing their owners, and as carriers of the cargo laden on board. He has likewise collected the provisions of the general and state governments, relative to the transportation of citizens, and to the importation of aliens, paupers, and offenders against the laws of other countries.

Chapter V. is on bills of lading, in which the author has well discussed the doctrine of "stoppage in transitu." From the cases, which he has diligently collected, it is evident, that a consignor has a right to arrest goods in their course, before they have come to the possession of the consignee, if they have not been paid for, or there is reasoable ground to fear the insolvency of the consignee. But as it would offend against common honesty, and might be injurious to commerce, if the consignor could prevent goods from coming to the possession of an assignee, to whom they have been transferred *bona fide*, and for a valuable consideration, it is now well settled, according to the final decision of the case of Lickbarrow against Mason, in the courts of Westminster, and is now "the general opinion of lawyers, that such an assignment does give an absolute right and property to the assignee, indefeasible by any claim on the part of the consignor."

The VI. chapter contains an ample collection of the cases, which relate to the carriage of goods, either by land or water.

The VII. treats of the rights and duties of seamen.

The subjects considered in the VIII. are freight, charterparty, and demurrage. In the IX. average and salvage. In the X. insurance. In the XI. bottomry and respondentia. In the XII. merchants, agents, factors, and brokers. In the XIII. partnership; and in the XIV. bankruptcy. The appendix contains forms of papers used at the custom house, admiralty precedents, and policies of insurance; together with a copious index of the principal matters in the volume.

Every treatise on the law, must derive its value from the correctness and fidelity, with which the author collects and reports the principles and decisions, which belong to his subject.

In analyzing and digesting the statutes of our government the author has exerted a very commendable industry. Compared with the size of the volume, and the variety of subjects which it contains, we regret, that he has been able to collect but so small a number of precedents, taken from decisions in our own country. Either we have not yet learnt the art of reporting legal adjudications, or else the occupation does not present, to those who are qualified for the office, a sufficient prospect of gain. In truth, while the unbounded rage for speculation, and the violence of party spirit universally occupy the minds of our citizens, our country will produce but few men eminent for literary accomplishment, and but few examples of professional excellence.

In perusing this volume, we have not always subscribed to the legal opinions of the author, and indeed we do not think, that the work derives its greatest value from what may be properly called its *original* matter. In chapter II. p. 98. he says,

> Ship owners are tenants in common, and therefore cannot bring trover, one againſt another, for running away with, and converting the common property; becauſe the poſſeſſion of one is the poſſeſſion of all, and therefore no converſion: but a ſpecial action in the caſe would lie: *and why, in caſe of an actual converſion by a ſale of the common property, trover might not be brought, I cannot well conceive.* It is ſettled that an ejectment may be maintained by one tenant in common, againſt another, after an ouſter; and that though, in order to work this, a bare perception of profits is not ſufficient, yet it need not be actual; for if, on demand by the co-tenant, of his moiety, the other refuſe to pay it; and deny the title, ſaying he claims the whole and will not pay, and continue in poſſeſſion; it is an adverſe holding, and an ouſter; ſo in the caſe of a ſhip, the mere receiving her freight might not amount to a converſion, but if this be accompanied with a denial of the joint owners right, and an excluſion from the poſſeſſion, it would, I preſume, be difficult to maintain there was not a converſion; the author is aware the actions of ejectment and trover are not exactly analogous; that in the former, poſſeſſion, in the latter, damages are recovered; and that detinue would, according to the phraſe of logicians, run more quatuor pedibus; but as the reaſon aſſigned why trover cannot be ſupported is, that the poſſeſſion of one tenant in common is the poſſeſſion of the other, and therefore no converſion: if, between ſuch parties, an ouſter can be effected, the principle of community of poſſeſſion is gone, and that being deſtroyed, the poſſibility of converſion inſtantly ariſes. Equity exiſts, as it is well ſaid, in the fictions of law, but in that combatted, it ſurely is not to be found.
>
> In chattel intereſts, like thoſe of ſhipping, the means of recourſe for one owner againſt another, ought, from the facility of alienation, rather to be multiplied than diminiſhed. One tenant in common cannot transfer the land of his co-proprietor, becauſe it muſt be conveyed by deed; but as in perſonalties, a right of poſſeſſion is ſufficient to paſs the ownerſhip, the diſpoſition by one jointholder of a ſhip will be good againſt his aſſociates, if followed by delivery of poſſeſſion.
>
> This opinion is imagined to be correct, notwithſtanding the mode of conveyance pointed out by the regiſter act; for though a bill of ſale be neceſſary under its proviſions, that circumſtance does not, it is conceived, alter the legal nature of the ſubject matter, which continues expoſed to the ſame exerciſe of power by which it was tranſmiſſible before the law was ordained.
>
> Therefore, the mode by which a ſhip may be ſet over, remains for the purpoſe of veſting the intereſt, the ſame as at common law, though certain formalities are requiſite, in order to entitle to a regiſter.

The action of trover would not lie in behalf of one ship owner, where the common property had been sold by another, because the sale would not amount to a conversion of the property, as nothing would be conveyed by the sale, but the share of the vendor. There is a distinction to be observed between joint owners and joint traders, or, as they are commonly called, copartners in trade, where each can by his act bind the society, "where each has the entire possession as well of every *parcel*, as of the whole," and where therefore a sale or transfer by one will convey the interest of the whole. Mr. Caines has in another place (p. 423) noted this distinction, observing of proprietors of a ship, that they are "tenants in common, and not joint tenants," and wanting therefore "an essential characteristick in the constitution of a partnership concern." The possession of a ship is not considered as proof of ownership; and hence we infer, that when one ship owner undertakes to sell and transfer the common property, no more is conveyed than the share of the vendor. The purchaser then becomes a tenant in common with the other owners for that share only, in the same manner as though the proportion had been expressed in the deed of conveyance. 'If two have jointly by gift or by buying a horse or an oxe, &c. and the one grant that to him belongs of the same horse or oxe to another, the grantee, and the other which did not grant, shall have and possesse such chattels personals in common.' Lit. *Tenures*, sec. 321.

The provisions of law, relative to the evils which may arise among ship owners, are equal to any occasions, which may occur. If one, part owner, should run away with the whole property against the will, and without the knowledge of the rest, it would in moral contemplation be a fraud, though it might be impossible to pursue the actor as a felon. But as soon as he should come within the reach of the process of the admiralty, he might be compelled either to resign the property or to stipulate with his partners for their security. If we are correct in this point, the remedy which the admiralty provides is far superiour to any which could be obtained by the action of trover, or by any other of the comparatively slow forms of the common law. Should this book ever come to a second edition, we recommend to the author a careful revisal of this chapter, and beg leave to refer him to the learned note of Serjeant Williams on the action of trover, 2 Saunder's Reports 47., from which we extract the following observation: 'If one joint tenant, tenant in common or parcener, *destroy* the thing in common, the other may bring trover. Co. Lit. 200 a. Therefore where one tenant in common of a ship took it away, and sent it to the West Indies, where it was lost in a storm, this was held by King C. I. of the C. B. to be evidence of a destruction, and the jury under his directions found it to be so. Bull. N. P. 34, 35.'

We sincerely regret, that the author was not more patient in digesting and arranging his materials into form and order. From the appearance of the work we are led to judge, that it is the juvenile production of a student, who mistook laborious compilation of notes for learning. Treatises of such magnitude are intended principally for reference and easy access; on which account a lucid division of the subject is essential. But the doctrines and principles, contained under many of the titles in this book, are blended together, without form or comeliness. They remind us of the primitive state of things, described by the poets, as

"rudis et sine imagine tellus."

The reader will be convinced of this, without comparing it with the celebrated treatise of Abbot "on the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen," a work of standard authority, and as admirable for its style and manner, as for its legal correctness.

The style of this work is by no means worthy of praise. The author sometimes affects uncommon elegance in his periods. In chapter IV., speaking of a law of Virginia, which forbids masters of vessels to carry any person out of that commonwealth, unless such person shall have first published, for six months successively in the Virginia Gazette, his resolution to depart therefrom, the writer adds, "*this publick advertisement of the Virginia code is hardly compatible with the locomotive rights of repub-*

lican liberty." (p. 136.) We are gratified with elegance of style, wherever it occurs, and do not think, that it is excluded from the most abstract legal subject. But passages like the above thrown into a book, the general character of whose style is rather below the plain,* have a fantastick appearance. Like the feast of a beggar, they serve to render the ordinary fare of the year still more disgusting.

In concluding our notice of this work we would observe, that *not to expect perfection* is as just a caution, when applied to books, as to men. So far as charity is consistent with the moral progress of the human character, its observance is a precept of religion ; and so far as tenderness to the imperfect literary attempts of our countrymen will not tend to diminish the activity of their genius, and to foster the spirit of indolence, so delicious and so powerful, we feel bound to indulge it, in surveying the domestick publications of our country.

ART. 24.

Illustrations and Reflections on the story of Saul's consulting the witch of Endor : a discourse, delivered at West Springfield, by Joseph Lathrop, D. D. pastor of the first church in said town. Springfield, Brewer. 1806. *8vo. pp.* 20.

The character of Dr. Lathrop, as a preacher, stands deservedly high ; and if it should not be increased, will certainly receive no diminution, by the present publication. The Dr. treats his subject in a rational manner, and deduces from it the three following inferences : 1. That we are taught from it the separate existence of the soul after death. 2. That we may infer from it that the spirits of pious men were formerly, and may be still, on some occasions, employed as ministers of God's providence in this world. 3. That we are warned by it of the guilt and danger which we incur, when we take indirect measures to learn the secrets of Providence, and the events of futurity.

In his second inference, the Dr. is supported by the authority of the best English divines, who attempt to prove, on scriptural grounds, the existence of angels, and their occasional interference with the concerns of men. Milton, who was no despicable theologian, carries the idea still farther, and supposes that malignant, as well as benevolent spirits, are active though invisible agents in this lower world.

> Spirits, when they please,
> Can execute their airy purposes,
> And works of love or enmity fulfil.

The style of this discourse is neat and perspicuous, and we shall subjoin an extract, in which the Dr. exposes, with great good sense, the folly and danger of giving credit to village conjurers and pretended adepts in the black art.

> Let us ſuppoſe that people generally give credit to ſuch perſons ; and then ſee what will be the conſequence. A caſualty happens, or ſome miſchief is done in our neighbourhood ; a barn is burned, or a man is miſſing, poſſibly dead, or property is loſt. We know not how ; but we ſuſpect, it is done by ſome deſigning villain. We diſpatch a meſſenger to the conjurer. What is the moral

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* In the following paſſage, which occurs in page 67, the author uſes an expreſſion, which is ſcarcely admiſſible in the plaineſt ſtyle : " The forfeitures for transferring veſſels to aliens and non-reſidents, under the acts regulating their regiſtring, recording, enrolling and licencing, *ſtick by* the ſhip as long as ſhe laſts, and are in the revenue creed inexpiable ſins."

character of this conjurer, we know not, nor do we much care. It is not the man, but the conjurer with whom we are now concerned. If we cannot truſt him in any other capacity, yet we can truſt him in this. The meſſenger goes and opens his buſineſs; an anſwer is given importing, that the miſchief was perpetrated by a certain man of ſuch a deſcription. We think of ſomebody, to whom the deſcription, with a little help of imagination, will ſuit tolerably well. Or perhaps the meſſenger has an enemy whom he ſuſpects, and prejudice will eaſily modify the picture ſo as to repreſent him. A hint is given—it is thrown into circulation—it gains credit; and an honeſt man is ruined. Thus divination, when it is held in general repute, puts it in every man's power to deſtroy every man, whom he will.

Why do you wiſh to know the author of a miſchief which has been done? You will ſay, You wiſh the villain may be puniſhed, the injury repaired, and evil prevented. Very well: Then take the proper ſteps to detect and arreſt the offender. If a conjurer points out ſuch, or ſuch a perſon, as the criminal, he may indeed gratify your curioſity, and perhaps your malice; but he does no good to ſociety. His ſuggeſtion is not evidence, on which the ſuppoſed perpetrator can be convicted. If it was, no mortal would be ſafe. You perhaps believe the inſinuation, and you make others believe it. But when the general ſuſpicion falls on an innocent man, inveſtigation ſtops; this innocent man ſuffers the reproach, and the really guilty lies unſuſpected, and eſcapes unpuniſhed. And when a new miſchief happens, the ſame ſcene may be acted over again.

On ſocial, therefore, as well as on religious principles, theſe diviners ought to be proſecuted, rather than encouraged—to be puniſhed, rather than patronized. Judge Blackſtone ſays, that "pretending to tell fortunes, and to diſcover ſtolen goods by ſkill in the occult ſciences, is a miſdemeanour, deſervedly puniſhed by law." The reaſon why it deſerves puniſhment is, becauſe it not only tends to ſubvert religion but alſo to diſturb the peace of ſociety, and deſtroy the reputation and ſecurity of every virtuous member.

ART. 25.

The Life and Campaigns of Victor Moreau, comprehending his trial, justification, and other events, till the period of his embarkation for the United States. By an officer of the staff. Translated from the French. New-York, published by Riley & Co. 1806. 12*mo.* *pp.* 288.

The translator or compiler of this piece of biography is a Mr. John Davis, who, we would inform our readers, as otherwise they would not probably know it, has published some poems, and a volume of travels through the United States. For what parts of this work we are indebted to the original genius of Mr. Davis, we are unable to discover, as he has left us no criterion, by which we can distinguish his own ingenuity from that of his author. We must consider the whole, therefore, as the work of Mr. Davis, since he has most heroically taken its responsibility upon himself. But let us hear Mr. Davis in person. "I am not the *negative* translator of the book, that has been put into my hands. I have felt an ardour to supply a work, that should gratify inquiry, and where I found the original wanting in information, I have made up the deficiency by laborious, patient, and persevering research. Hence my volume will not suffer by a comparison with the original, whose characteristick is detail." Again. "If the moral character of the generals be developed, and the attractions of biography engrafted on history, the reader is indebted to the zeal, diligence, and inquiry of the translator."

This is modest, still to call himself a translator, after these high claims on the approbation of the publick. Quere, what are we to understand by a *negative* translator?

The following portrait of the archduke Charles may gratify the curiosity of the American publick.

> The young prince was an illuſtrious opponent for Moreau at the opening of his campaign. He was conſpicuous for his talents, bravery, and conduct. He was the idol of his ſoldiers, in great publick eſtimation, and the roſe and expectancy of the country that gave him birth. He was of a middle ſtature, well proportioned, but thin; light hair, high forehead, large blue eyes, an aquiline noſe, pale lips, round chin, and of a freſh and roſy complexion. His look was pleaſing, his manners princely, his deportment majeſtick.

This picture is well-drawn, and makes us acquainted with the person of a hero, who long since might have rescued continental Europe from the disgraceful chains of Gallick slavery, had not his genius been checked, and his plans thwarted by the mean jealousies of his own infatuated court. There is a defect, however, in the third sentence, where there are several nominatives without a verb.

"Ferino was given the command of the right wing." This is not English. He should have written, The command of the right was given to Ferino.

Mr. Davis occasionally attempts the pathetick.

> That day roſe on them panting for renown, whoſe night ſaw them motionleſs on the crimſoned plain. On what a ſlender thread hangs the deſtiny of man! Quenched in a moment were their glorious fires of intellectual valour. Cruſhed was every hope they had fondly cheriſhed of being preſſed again to the heaving beauties of their miſtreſſes at home, who breathed for them their deep prayers, and in whoſe ſighs for their abſence was mingled the murmur of love! Farewell to hope! Farewell to earthly bliſs! No more were they to witneſs the endearing ſmile, no more to enjoy the fairy favours of beauty!

This is on a level with the style of a lady's maid, in her first essay at novel-writing.

If any doubt should remain of the modesty of Mr. Davis, the following note must remove it.

> The intelligent reader will perceive, that wherever a diſquiſition appears, or reflexion is exerciſed, (whether in a whole chapter or detached paſſages) it does not emanate from the French verbum ſapientè.

Mr. Davis is not very accurate in his language, nor well founded in all his assertions. He uses the neuter verb *glide* in an active sense, ('where the Seine *glides* its waves') contrary to established usage, and affirms that General Moreau 'transcends Xenophon in a military capacity, and rivals him as a scholar.'

That the General is a great soldier, no one will deny, but, that his literary talents equal those of the all-accomplished Athenian, is an assertion, which requires better evidence, than the mere *ipse dixit* of Mr. Davis.

On the whole, this work is a catch-penny production, and adds nothing to the wealth of literature, or to the reputation of the writer.

ART. 26.

Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society for the year 1799. *Vol. VI.* Boston, S. Hall. 8*vo. pp.* 288.

We have now advanced, in the irregular course of our criticism, to the sixth volume of the Historical Collections. As in our former reviews we have stated so fully the importance and the dryness of the documents in general, their value to the regular annalist, and their indifference to the ordinary reader, we shall spend no further time on these or collateral topicks, but shall proceed to a cursory statement of the papers in this volume. Before, however, we begin our critical duty, we shall say a few words on the Rev. Dr. Clarke's and Rev. Dr. Belknap's characters, of which some account is prefixed to the work.

Dr. Clarke has been estimated too highly as a man of letters, both in general conversation and in the volume before us. He certainly was not a scholar of the first or the second class. Unquestionably he was a man of the mildest disposition, of the most amiable temper, and of easy, unassuming deportment. These are qualities always important and highly commendatory; and in Dr. Clarke they originated a course of conduct, as a man, a christian, and a preacher, perfectly correspondent. But to celebrate him "as distinguished in the literary world," as "no *common* proficient in the liberal arts and sciences," is a benevolent extension of eulogy, which resembles a glaring, though unintentional violation of truth. It is also highly detrimental to our literature, because it stops the progress of ambition; and it is injurious to our renown in Europe, because foreign scholars in vain seek for erudition or literature in the writings of Dr. Clarke; and they have a right to contend, as perfectly applicable, what we are disposed to consider as probably true, that "de non apparentibus et de non existentibus eadem est ratio."

The Rev. Dr. Belknap is a different character. His writings exhibit large extent of research, much depth of investigation, and variety of knowledge. He knew something of physical science. He chiefly delighted, like the German literati, in laborious operation, yet in his Foresters he is easy, cheerful, and witty. We do not mean, that even Belknap was a great scholar in the dignified acceptation of the term, but his reading was very extensive, his information remarkably varied, and his reflections clear, full, and efficient. This conclusion easily results from a perusal of all his works, particularly 'the History of New-Hampshire,' 'the Century discourse,' and 'the American Biography.'

In our opinions of literary men of this country we are always cautious, and therefore we wish to be clearly understood. Eulogy here is perfectly absurd. It is either the vilest daubing of colours, or the most grotesque caricature of expression. If a man write an historical work, he becomes a Sallust; if he stitch together doggrel couplets against democracy, he is transformed into a Butler; preachers have been likened to Masillon; and, by some strange, incomprehensible metempsychosis, Antonius and Crassus of the Roman forum are revived in more than former splendour in the persons of American pleaders.

"Remarks made during a residence at Stabroek Rio Demerary, lat. 6. 10. N. in the latter part of the year 1798. By Thomas Pierronet."

This paper contains much curious information, and some valuable facts. We submit the following to our readers.

> The interiour will probably never be brought to a ſtate of cultivation, owing to the want of drainage; or at leaſt the tract ſixty miles from the ſea, which is a vaſt drowned ſwamp. All the improvements have been hitherto made on the ſea-coaſt, and on the banks of the rivers, and very rarely has a plantation been carried farther back. The labour in forming a new plantation is immenſe,

and can only be eſtimated by thoſe who have been ſpectators thereof.

The produce of theſe ſettlements are coffee, cotton, and ſugar. Of theſe, cotton is ſuppoſed to be the moſt precarious crop. Too much rain rots it, and a ſucceſſion of dry weather cauſes it to blaſt. Coffee, on the contrary, has nothing to fear, except from too much wet. Several eſtates make a good revenue from their plantain walks; a bunch of which previous to the importation of 60,000 ſlaves by the Engliſh into the colony, was ſold for 2¼ ſtivers, but now fetches 12½.

Animal labour is totally excluded, unleſs it be that of the horſe, when uſed for the ſaddle or chair. This is not ſo much to be wondered at, when it is conſidered, that the low country does not produce even a pebble. A team of oxen or horſes, with a heavy draught, would deſtroy the beſt road in Demerary in the rainy ſeaſon. As for the interiour, the ſoil is ſo ſwampy, that an animal of burthen would ſink to its belly at every ſtep. However, the coloniſts contrive to interſect the country with ſuch a multitude of canals, that the heavieſt articles are delivered them at a very cheap rate.

The cutting of graſs is very laborious and tireſome; and as it is the only herbaceous food of the horſes, it is neceſſary to procure great quantities of it. The only way uſed here, to obtain it, is by ſending out the negroes with a knife, who by this tedious operation, each one at length collects a bundle, which may weigh eighty pounds, which he binds like a wheat ſheaf, and carries off. It is remarkable, that the ſcythe, ſickle, flail, plough, waggon, or even hand-barrow, are abſolutely unknown in the colony.

Negroes. The negroes are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate; a bunch of plantains, which will laſt them a week, and a little ſalt-fiſh, form their delicacies. As for their clothing, the far greater part of them have only a narrow ſtrip of bunting to bind round their middle, while many of the younger claſſes have not even this ornament. However, in ſome families they are comfortably clothed, and fed with ſcraps, which have reached the ſecond day. Their lodgings are, however, on the bare floor, where they generally lay promiſcuouſly.

They are puniſhed very ſeverely; although it depends very much on the diſpoſition of their owners, whether they go through a conſtant whipping, or whether they experience a milder fate. Theft and deſertion are generally left to the fiſcal, whoſe agents apply from two to five hundred laſhes (according to their ſentence) with a long whip, which lacerates them horridly. Theſe laſhes are always applied on the bare breech, and the culprit prevented from ſitting thereon for three months.

Crimes of greater magnitude are extenuated by the rack, and ſubſequent decapitation.

The negroes are allowed the privilege of the Sunday, when they come into the town, either to work in cleaning out the trenches, &c. or, with a load of fruit or vegetables, which they diſpoſe of for their own emolument. After they have received the amount of their perquiſite, they either lay out the money in procuring ſome little neceſſaries, or otherwiſe in drinking, gambling, and dancing; and the day is generally concluded by one or more battles.

"Specimen of the Mountaineer, or Sheshatapooshshoish, Skoffie, and Micmac Languages."

The vocabularies add to our knowledge of Indian languages. The author's source of information is apparently good, yet what is the reason that he does not tell his own name? He often is known by the emphatical I; but now, for the first time in the world, a personal pronoun designates nobody, except a metaphysical entity.

"General John Winslow's Letter to the Earl of Halifax, relative to his conduct, and that of the troops under his command, on the Ticonderogo expedition in 1756."

As General W. was "the only person, who had been in the whole of these matters," he is entitled to be heard, and his narrative has the the appearance of candour and fidelity.

"Secretary Willard's Letter to Mr. Bollan, agent for the colony of Massachusetts-Bay, relative to the failure of Crown-Point expedition, and reimbursement from G. Britain."

"Letter from William Bollan, agent for the colony of Massachusetts-Bay, to the speaker of the house of assembly of that colony."

"A memorandum of divers particulars, shewing the exhausted state of Massachusetts province, and the necessity of a considerable parliamentary grant, to relieve its distress, and enable it to answer the demands for the publick service in the next campaign, referred to in the preceding letter."

From various documents in these Collections, Mr. Bollan seems to have been a most active, faithful colonial agent. In the civil history of Massachusetts he is often mentioned with honour. His various memorials, petitions, and statements shew a mind replete with proper information for the benefit of the colonies, and if he was as respectable in private life, as he was diligent and laborious in publick exertions, the state of Massachusetts ought not willingly to let his memory die.

"A brief state of the province of Quebec, as to its constitution, number of inhabitants, laws, commerce, population, circulating property, tenure of real property, science, &c. written in the year 1787."

This paper may be consulted with some advantage. The official information is good, because correct; but facts have shown many of the commercial opinions to be false. It will give some idea of the colony of Canada in 1786, but since that period new laws of parliament, treaties, and the growth of the United States have variously affected that country in its settlement, fur trade, civilization, commerce, and agriculture.

"Continuation of the narrative of newspapers published in New-England, from the year 1704 to the revolution; in a letter from one the members to the president the society."

This memoir continues the history of New-England newspapers to the year 1770—2. It is interspersed with various information and minute political literature. There is a queerness and a quaintness in the narrative, which resembles the manner of a pleasant old gentleman telling curious anecdotes of times before the revolution. It concludes with an account of Connecticut newspapers by Mr. Noah Webster.

"Mr. Dummer's letters to Mr. Flint."

"James Cudworth's letter to Governour Josiah Winslow, declining his appointment to a military command."

In a note, added to explain this letter, it is mentioned as probable, that the writer was appointed to the command of certain forces, raised on account of a sudden alarm that the Dutch had taken some ships in Virginia, and having possessed themselves of New-York, were bound for the northward; but from Hutchinson it is clear, that the news did not arrive at Boston till August, 1673, and Cudworth's letter is dated in January 1673. The letter deserves perusal from its patriarchal simplicity.

"James Cudworth's letter to Gov. Josiah Winslow."

This letter was written during the first expedition against Philip.

"Letter from John Easton to Governour Josiah Winslow of Plymouth colony."

Explanatory of the Indian law respecting ship-wrecked goods.

"Letter from Nathaniel Thomas, on the expedition against Philip, to Governour Winslow."

"A Letter from Secretary Rawson to Governour Winslow, to be communicated to the Council."

This letter is dated Boston, 14 March, 1673—4, and relates some proceedings of the government of Massachusetts in reference to "the late and present actings of the Dutch in the sound."

"Letter from Gov. Leverett to Gov. Winslow."

"Letter from Edward Palmer to Governour Josiah Winslow."

"Letter from John Freeman to Gov. Winslow."

"Return of loss, in Scituate, in Philip's war."

These relate to Indian wars in 1675—6.

"Edward Randolph's letter to Governour Josiah Winslow, relative to his proceedings at Piscataqua."

"Sachem Philip, his answer to the letter brought to him from the Governour of New-Plymouth."

"Edward Rawson's letter to the Governour of New-Plymouth, soliciting aid for the college at Cambridge."

"Letter of instructions from the Massachusetts General Court to William Bollan, their agent at the court of Great-Britain."

These instructions were made in 1756, to assist Mr. Bollan in an humble and earnest application to his majesty for relief from the grievous burden the province was under from the impressing of seamen, fishermen, and others, for the manning of his majesty's ships of war.

"Letter from Leonard Hoar, M.D. to Josiah Flint."

In this long letter much advice is given upon studying, and common place books or paper books, as the writer calls them. It is curious to observe, what books were once read and recommended. Peter Ramus, who now is hardly consulted even by the metaphysician, is in this letter extolled, as "the grand, the incomparable." Dr.Ames's Medulla is known only to the reader of catalogues. And for direction and encouragement in devotional exercises and holy meditation who would now read "The practice of Augustine, Bernard, or Gerard ; or of more modern worthies J. Ambrose, R. Baxter, B. Hall, or W. Watson, as to the theoretical part" ? The works of these men are now the secure lodgments of spiders, book lice and flies in winter. Their merit is almost unknown even to the theological inquirer. They lay in old libraries, as long lances and baronial shields in gothick armouries, testimonials of ancient elaboration and gradual decay.

"Some memoirs for the continuation of the history of the troubles of the New-English colonies, from the barbarous and perfidious Indians, instigated by the more savage and inhuman French of Canada and Nova-Scotia. Began Nov. 3, 1726. By Benjamin Colman, D. D."

"Letter from Henry Newman, to the Rev. Henry Flynt."

Upon some books for Harvard College.

"Letter from Paul Mascarenc to Governour Shirley."

This relates to the history of the government of Nova-Scotia from 1710 to 1748 with suggestions of amendments.

"Prince and Bosworth's petition to the government of Plymouth, relative to the mackarel fishery."

"Letter from William Bollan, agent for the Massachusetts, at the court of Great-Britain, to Josiah Willard, secretary of that province, respecting an intention of governing the colonies like Ireland."

"Mr. Bollan's petition to the duke of Bedford, relative to French encroachments, 1748."

This is an important historical and geographical document, and ought to be read by him, who wishes to understand the whole reasons of the war, that terminated by the peace of 1763. The boundaries of the French and English colonies in North America, as described by charter, conquest, treaties, and maps, were often perplexed and sometimes inconsistent. Both nations had plausible arguments in their favour, and nationality of spirit added the obstinacy of prejudice to the real appearance of equity in their long and fatiguing diplomatick discussions. Which party was right is not difficult for an Englishman or a Frenchman to say; and the philosophick inquirer may well be excused from deciding an old question of colonial boundaries, when he observes that now dynasties are annihilated, and empires overturned by French despotick power, without the courtesy of negociation or the formality of resistance.

"Gov. Hamilton's letter to Gov. Shirley."

This letter inclosed the next communication, entitled

"Major Washington's letter to Governour Hamilton,"

In which Major W. relates the progress of his detachment towards the Ohio in the war of 1754, and incloses two other documents, entitled

"A Summon, by order of Contrecœur, captain of one of the companies of the detachment of the French marine, commander in chief of his most christian majesty's troops now on the Beautiful river—to the commander of those of the king of Great-Britain, at the mouth of the river Monongahela,"

To which Mr. Ward was obliged to submit; And

"Speech from the Half King to the Governours of Virginia and Pennsylvania, referred to in Major Washington's letter."

By which the Half King offers assistance.

"A list of the Presidents of the colony of Rhode-Island and Providence plantations, under the first charter; and of the Governours, under the second charter, collected from the publick records."

"Letter from his Excellency Gov. Jay, corresponding member of the Historical Society, to its corresponding secretary."

This letter corrects two mistakes in the report of the committee of the board of correspondents of the Scots society for propagating christian knowledge, &c. published in the Hist. Col. for 1798.

"A letter from the treasurer of the Massachusetts Historical Society to the president, on the propriety and expediency of an appropriate national name, designatory of the citizens of the United States, as a distinct people from the other inhabitants of the two vast American peninsulas."

This memoir is written with ingenuity, and in an easy style. Mr. Tudor is forcible in his reasons against the retention of America, as a geographical term to designate the United States, and proposes Columbia, as a suitable name.

"Letter from his late Excellency Jonathan Trumbull, Esq. to Baron J. D. Vander Capellan, seigneur du Pol, membre des nobles de la province d'Overysul, &c."

Gov. Trumbull, after briefly touching on the early settlement of Massachusetts and Connecticut, relates the history of the American war till 1779—80, and the then state of the country. We extract a very important paragraph.

In 1640, governour Winthrop, in his Journal, inſerts the following paſſage, viz. "Upon the great liberty which the king left the parliament to in England, ſome of our friends there wrote to us, adviſing, to ſend over ſome to ſolicit for us in parliament, giving us hopes we might obtain much: but conſulting about it, we (the governour and aſſiſtants, convened in council) declined the motion for this conſideration, that if we ſhould put ourſelves under the protection of parliament, we muſt be ſubject to all ſuch laws they ſhould make, or at leaſt ſuch as they might impoſe on us; in which courſe, though they ſhould intend our good, yet it might prove very prejudicial to us." Here obſerve, that as at this time, ſo it hath been ever ſince, that the colonies, ſo far from acknowledging the parliament to have a right to make laws binding on them in all caſes whatſoever, they have ever denied it in any caſe.

"The petition of the Earl of Stirling, William PhillipsLee, and Mary Trumbull, praying to be put in possession of some lands, called the county of Canada, granted to William Earl of Stirling, in 1635, by the council for the affairs of N. England. 1760."

"Letter from Jasper Mauduit, Esq. to the Speaker of the house of representatives of the province of Massachusetts-Bay, relative to a reimbursement from parliament for the expense of supporting the French neutrals from Nova Scotia."

"Letter from Jasper Mauduit, Esq. to the Speaker of the house of representatives of the province of Massachusetts-Bay, relative to the duty laid by parliament on foreign molasses."

"Letter from Jasper Mauduit, Esq. to the Speaker of the house of representatives of the province of Massachusetts-Bay, relative to the duty on foreign molasses, the keeping up ten thousand troops in America, &c."

The titles explain the subjects of the foregoing papers. The historian will consult them, and the careless reader will consult the historian.

"Letter from Thomas Mayhew to Gov. Prince,"

Upon the politicks of the Indians of the Elizabeth islands and the Vineyard in 1671.

"James Walker's letter to Gov. Prince."

A few particulars about king Philip.

"Daniel Gookin's letter to Gov. Prince."

"Letter from Gov. Prince to Daniel Gookin."

"Instructions from the church at Natick to William and Anthony."

They were appointed mediators between the Missogkonnog Indians and the government of Plymouth in 1671."

"Copy of a letter from Governour Prince to Roger Williams."

This is an answer to a complaint of Roger Williams about liberty of religious worship, which he feared the colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Plymouth intended to take from him by conquering his colony at Providence.

"James Quanapaug's information."

Quanapaug was sent from Natick in 1675 to reconnoitre hostile Indians, king Philip, Narragansetts, &c. He saw much, and told it well.

"Letter from Governour Stuyvesant, of N. York, to the Governour and Council of Massachusetts."

Gov. S. complains of the irregular proceedings of some English colonial officers in New-York and the unjustifiable outrages of a large company of men on Long Island, and wishes for peaceable accommodation. Boston has long been celebrated for courtesy and kind attention to strangers, and we are proud to mention, that in 1663 Gov. S. thus writes:

The engagement whereby I confeſſed myſelf obliged unto your honours, to your citizens, both horſe and foot, for the large reſpects, honourable reception, and entertainment in the city and colony of Boſton, doth provoke me, by this ſeaſonable opportunity, to return all due and thankful acknowledgment, which ſhould have been done ſooner, if my ſickneſs and other intervening occaſions, had not occaſioned this neglect. But I hope it will never be too late to offer this tribute of thankfulneſs, and due engagement, unto your honours, in any occaſion.

"Deposition of Hugh Cole, at Plymouth Court, A. D. 1670,"

About king Philip.

"A Description and History of Salem, by Rev. William Bentley."

The history of Salem contains a great variety of facts. Whether all the statements are correct, we are not able to decide ; nor can we point out what is true, and what is false. Dr. Bentley has investigated with diligence the state of population, diseases, religious worship, &c. His opinions and inferences may be open to doubt, but we are not disposed to withhold praise from curiosity of inquiry and accumulation of results. The character given of Roger Williams is different from that to be drawn from the statements of former historians, and although Dr. Bentley may have correctly estimated that singular man, still, as he knew there were doubts respecting the true character of the Patriarch of Providence, he ought to have cited authorities in support of his opinions. He would have made the work more luminous, had he divided it into chapters with appropriate heads ; for now we cannot with facility find any particular fact, required to be known. The author mentions at the close, that the history is to be continued, but in the succeeding volumes of the Historical Collections the continuation does not appear. We hope he will proceed in the work, for diligence and exactness are not to be found in every historian ; and these qualities shall always receive our praise, though our disapprobation may be sometimes excited by obscurity of style and perplexity of arrangement. As a specimen of Dr. Bentley's work we insert the character of Roger Williams, and we are willing to believe every commendation of this extraordinary man ; of one, who was enterprizing, eccentrick, heroick, and pious.

In Salem, every perſon loved Mr. Williams. He had no perſonal enemies under any pretence. All valued his friendſhip. Kind treatment could win him, but oppoſition could not conquer him. He was not afraid to ſtand alone for truth againſt the world ; and he had always addreſs enough, with his firmneſs, never to be forſaken by the friends he had ever gained. He had always a tenderneſs of conſcience, and feared every offence againſt moral truth. He breathed the pureſt devotion. He was ready in thoughts and words, and defied all his vaunting adverſaries to publick diſputation. He had a familiar imagery of ſtyle, which ſuited his times, and he indulged even in the titles of his controverſial papers to wit upon names, eſpecially upon the Quakers. He knew man better than he did civil government. He was a friend to human nature, forgiving, upright, and pious. He underſtood the Indians better than any man of the age. He made not ſo many converts, but he made more ſincere friends. He knew their paſſions, and the reſtraints they could endure. He was betrayed into no wild or expenſive projects reſpecting them. He ſtudied their manners and their cuſtoms and paſſions together. His vocabulary alſo proves that he was familiar with the words of their language, if not with its principles. It is an happy relief in contemplating ſo eccentrick a character, that no ſufferings induced any purpoſes of revenge, for which he afterwards had great opportunities ; that great ſocial virtues corrected the firſt errours of his opinions ; and that he lived to exhibit to the natives a noble example of generous goodneſs, and to be the parent of the independent ſtate of Rhode-

Island. He died in his colony, in 1683, in the 84th year of his age.

ART. 27.

The Sabbath, a poem. The first American edition, to which are now added, Sabbath Walks. New-York, printed by Collins, Perkins, & Co. 1805. 12*mo.* *pp.* 168.

THIS little poem is written with great simplicity and considerable purity of style, excellencies the more welcome, as the more uncommon in the present degeneracy of taste, when a studied magnificence has driven nature from our prose, and sound without sense characterizes our verse.

This poet, who writes in blank verse, has one peculiarity in his versification, which, from its frequent recurrence, he undoubtedly thinks a beauty, but which strikes us, as in the highest degree harsh and inharmonious. He often employs eleven syllables in a line.

'His iron-armed hoofs gleam in the morning ray.'
'In air, soaring heaven-ward, afar they float.'
'The record of her blossoming age appears.'

The authority of Milton is not sufficient to justify a license of this nature, and from the refinement of modern times, and the improvement of our language, we expect from a poet of the present day, at least, smoothness of versification. He also indulges once in a hemistick, or half-verse.

'Beyond the empyreal.'

Virgil, who died before his Æneid was completed, left many lines unfinished, and this is the only instance, which we have yet found, where an imperfection has been imitated from choice. Dryden indeed adopted the practice from laziness, but succeeding bards never presumed to take the same liberty. With the exception of these trivial faults, which, however, it was incumbent on us as reviewers to point out, we can recommend this poem to every class of readers. It has simplicity enough to be intelligible to the illiterate, and sufficient sentiment and poetry to gratify the learned. As the style of the poet is equable, without any occasional flights above its uniform tenor, we have no choice in selection, and shall therefore quote the first forty lines of the poem, as a specimen of the writer's manner.

How still the morning of the hallowed day!
Mute is the voice of rural labour, hushed
The ploughboy's whistle, and the milkmaid's song.
The scythe lies glittering in the dewy wreath
Of tedded grass, mingled with fading flowers,
That yester morn bloom'd waving in the breeze;
Sounds the most faint attract the ear,—the hum
Of early bee, the trickling of the dew,
The distant bleating, midway up the hill.
Calmness seems thron'd on yon unmoving cloud.
To him who wanders o'er the upland leas,
The blackbird's note comes mellower from the dale;
And sweeter from the sky the gladsome lark
Warbles his heav'n-tun'd song; the lulling brook
Murmurs more gently down the deep-sunk glen;
While from yon lowly roof, whose curling smoke
O'ermounts the mist, is heard. at intervals,
The voice of psalms, the simple song of praise.

With dove-like wings Peace o'er yon village broods:
The dizzying mill-wheel rests; the anvil's din
Hath ceas'd; all, all around is quietness.
Less fearful on this day, the limping hare
Stops, and looks back, and stops, and looks on man,
Her deadliest foe. The toil-worn horse, set free,
Unheedful of the pasture, roams at large;
And, as his stiff unwieldy bulk he rolls,
His iron-arm'd hoofs gleam in the morning ray.

But chiefly Man the day of reſt enjoys.
Hail, Sabbath! thee I hail, the poor man's day.
On other days, the man of toil is doom'd
To eat his joyless bread, lonely, the ground
Both seat and board, screen'd from the winter's cold,
And summer's heat, by neighbouring hedge or tree;
But on this day, embosom'd in his home,
He shares the frugal meal with those he loves;
With those he loves he shares the heart-felt joy
Of giving thanks to God,—not thanks of form,
A word and a grimace, but rev'rently,
With cover'd face and upward earnest eye,

What we have said of the Sabbath is equally applicable to the short poems that follow it, entitled Sabbath Walks. A body of notes is subjoined to the whole, chiefly relating to the persecutions formerly experienced by the Scotch presbyterians. As their fanaticks, however, suffered no more than they, or their ancestors under John Knox, had inflicted, whatever sympathy they may excite in Scotland, they cannot expect to inspire much interest here. The character of Bonaparte, drawn with no inconsiderable ability, though in a style, perhaps a little too turgid, will be much more gratifying to the American reader.

The character of Bonaparte will furniſh a ſpecimen of more monſtrous moral deformity, than was ever exhibited in the hiſtorical muſeum. Poſſeſſing the power of conferring on mankind a greater portion of happineſs than ever depended on the will of one man, he has been the author of miſeries incalculable. He could have given liberty to France: he aſſumed abſolute power to himſelf. He could have given peace to Europe: he concluded an inſidious truce. He could have emancipated Switzerland: he rivetted the chains, which the Directory had forged. In St. Domingo, his conduct was a complication of the moſt ſottiſh impolicy, the moſt ſavage cruelty, the moſt knaviſh perfidy, that ever diſgraced the annals of human nature. By this ſelf-created monarch, was Touſſaint, the elected ruler of a free people, ſwindled into a treaty, kidnapped during the peace that ſucceeded, torn from his wife and children, tranſported in irons to France, immured in a dungeon, and, finally, aſſaſſinated, (if uncontradicted accuſation deſerve any credit,) in a mode perfectly ſuitable to the commencement and progreſs of the horrid hiſtory,—poiſon under the diſguiſe of medicine. Yet this maſked murderer this druggiſt-aſſaſſin preſumes to exclaim againſt the the uplifted arm of an Arena or a Georges. His effrontery can only be ſurpaſſed by his hypocriſy. Compared to him, Cromwell was a mere novice in the art.—As to military talents, how infinitely inferiour is he to Moreau! Moreau ſaved, he ſacrificed his ſoldiers. Moreau, deſtitute of reſources, accompliſhed a retreat more ſplendid than the Corſican ſwindler's moſt celebrated victories. Moreau conducted his ſoldiers to their homes: the Corſican deſerted his in a diſtant, hoſtile, peſtilential region.—His ſucceſs in Italy (and there only he was ſucceſsful) was a matter of arithmetical, rather than of military tacticks. In the cauſe of liberty each individual of the French army was ſelf-devoted to death. The Corſican's troops were in his eſtimation, and were in reality, as ſo much *ammunition.* Not a barrel of powder, not a *caiſſon*, was more entirely at his diſpoſal, than were the lives of his men. He had only to calculate, whether he or his adverſary was moſt abundantly ſupplied with this human ammunition. It was a calculation of carnage. He was in truth the chief broker in the vendue-room of victory, and he carried off the beſt lots, by outbidding his competitors in the blood of the ſoldiery.—At laſt, this puny mimick of Charlemagne, bedizened with the motley panegyricks of fawning ſenators, obedient *law-makers*, and aſſenting tribunes, has erected his throne on the yet trembling crater of the revolutionary volcano. From this hollow eminence, his ſelf-filled eye looked upward to his gorgeous canopy of ſtate, but diſcerned not the ſtill more extended canopy of the world's deriſion. Nor could his fancied exaltation be complete, without the actual degradation of the humbled wearer of the Papal tiara, who, by his ſufferance, is ſtill permitted to retain the ſhadow of a mighty name. This miſerable chief of an expiring ſuperſtition, dragged like another conſcript to the Capital of Continental Europe, and drilled to the minutiæ of the coronation manual, has been compelled to place an imperial diadem on that head ſo much more worthy of a Damien's crown. To conſummate the abſurd wickedneſs of the atchievement, the Sabbath, the day *holy of the Lord, honourable*, has been proſtituted to this ſacrilegious pantomime. Compared to ſuch things as theſe, the former atheiſm of the Corſican creedmonger was ſanctity itſelf.

ART. 28.

A new Map of the United States of America, including part of Louisiania.. Drawn from the latest authorities. Boston, published and sold by John Sullivan, jun. 1806.

THE science of geography owes its progress to the assistance of maps, as in a less degree history is indebted to painting ; for of the senses the eye is the most important, and the objects it embraces in the acquisition of knowledge are most extensive. The ideas received through this medium are generally clear and distinct ; the impressions they make are strong and lasting, and seldom require an after operation of the mind to connect or arrange them. It comprehends at once all the proportions, numbers, and divisions of a painting, or piece of architecture ; the beauties are equally stamped upon the mind, and time, although it may weaken, can never obliterate the images.

These reflections were suggested by inspecting the new map, lately presented to the American publick, by Mr. John Sullivan, jun. It comprehends, on a sheet of 4 by 4½ feet, the whole of the United States, with part of Louisiana, the Floridas, and part of the British provinces of Canada, and furnishes a very distinct and valuable exposition of the political divisions and boundaries of the states.

To give an exact and comprehensive map of the United States was certainly a great and laudable undertaking, and such as the publick, if well executed, ought to encourage by something more than an affectation of patronage. The small maps in Morse's Gazetteer, the scarcity of Bradley's and the dearness of Arrowsmith's, and the progress of civilization and improvement towards our Western frontiers, rendered the publication of the new map peculiarly interesting.

Gazetteers are serviceable to show with facility the qualities of soil, institutions, population, climates, productions, arts, manners, and customs of different countries ; but we must look to maps for their relative situations, and the connexion, that one district or territory has with another, the extent, situation, and direction of rivers, mountains, &c.

In the compilation of a map, made up of different surveys and descriptions of small sections of the country, difficulties and embarrassments occur, which are not obvious to a cursory observer. By diminishing large, and protracting small maps of the several states and territories, and comparing the variable surveys and correcting the anomalies, which are found in them, the publisher is liable to commit many errours, and becomes, in a great measure, answerable for the inaccuracies of his predecessors, whose works he is obliged to join and associate to form an aggregate of the whole. Nor are the materials easily obtained. If he trusts to the numerous small maps in circulation, most of which are extremely defective, his imprudence is inexcusable ; and if he looks for assistance to original surveys, he will generally find them incomplete. Nor can an accurate map of the United States be expected, without efficient aid from government. Maps of some of the states have been published by authority ; but instead of surveyors being employed to fix the exact position of prominent objects, the bearings of which would correct other surveys, the compiler has been obliged to collect plans of towns and small districts, and to make a patch-work whole of these discordant materials. Sometimes it would be necessary to bend or straighten a river, to protract or shorten its course ; but this was not considered of much importance, and, to give the whole a pretty appearance, a range of mountains might be easily added for a boundary line. Nor can we blame the compiler for not going to an expense, that our economical governments will not incur. A society in this town was offered the privilege of making and publishing the maps of Massachusetts and Maine, and they would have had the volunteer assistance of many scientifick gentlemen ; but government, by striving to drive too hard a bargain, lost the opportunity of obtaining accurate maps. But we must not expect the encouragement of government to maps, when every seaman complains, that there is not a chart of the extensive shores of New-England, upon which he can rest the safety of his ship.

To give a plain delineation of the several states, as a kind of chart, by which we may study the political ties and interests that unite, or ought to unite us, under a general government, must be the greatest advantage resulting from this map. Accuracy in this respect is required, and not a particular location of small and inconsiderable towns. This, as it is not expected, only endangers the credit of the work ; and here Mr. Sullivan has hazarded much. In Virginia, for instance, and in Massachusetts and other New-England states, the map appears crowded, and the centres of towns are not noted definitively by small circles, as is usually done in good maps. Had he, therefore, paid less attention to this part, and more explicitly marked the post-roads and towns, which are certainly of great consequence, and perhaps coloured them, he would have turned some of his industry to better account.

The meridians and parallels might have been more accurately and truly drawn, and the graver guided by a more skilful hand. The execution should have been under the superintendance of an experienced engraver, rather than, as would seem from its aspect, have been put into the stiff and unpractised hands of an apprentice. It is a pity the valuable labour of two years, spent by the compiler in collecting and arranging so much useful information, should be dressed out with so little taste and skill. The work would have found a more welcome reception, if, in addition to the science of the proprietor, the map had presented a better specimen of the ingenuity and proficiency of American engravers.

The colouring is neat and judicious, and affords at one glance a better knowledge of the boundaries of the several states, than could be gained by months devoted to study. In some parts omissions and inaccuracies occur, which are not, however, unpardonable. Mountains are laid down in different places, with precision and a good relief ; but Monadnock, in New-Hampshire, and Wachusett, in Massachusetts, two great landmarks in New-England, are quite forgotten ; they are not noticed on the map. As longitude is sometimes reckoned from London or Greenwich, and sometimes from Paris, notice ought always to be given, from what meridian we are to count ; but, as the degrees are marked on this map without a reference to the first meridian, we hope a new edition will be supplied, at top or bottom, with "*Longitude West from London.*"

When many sheets are to be joined to form a large map, much care and practice are requisite to make the various lines meet, & unite them correctly. The "New Map of the United States" furnishes evidence, either of the difficulty of this part of the work, or the carelessness of the workmen.

We have examined the longitude and latitude of many places, and, from the inquiries we have made, the map is as accurate as can be expected. It would be ungrateful to demand a minute attention to towns and small districts, when the whole Union on so small a sheet is pendent on the walls of our counting-rooms and studies. The post-roads are laid out with exactness, though indistinctly, and the great rivers of North-America pursue their sinuous courses and empty their mighty waters, where nature has commanded. The Mississippi, Mobile, Missouri, Illinois, and Ohio, all have their proper range, and, with Mr. Sullivan's efforts, proclaim the value and richness of countries yet untrodden beyond the Appalachian mountains, countries unequalled for agricultural and inland commercial advantages. That section, comprizing Louisiana, is almost a blank ; and such for many years will probably be every accurate representation of that country.

Two very valuable tables are placed upon the map. The first shews the number and names of ports of entry in the United States ; those being particularly designated, which are such for vessels from and beyond the Cape of Good Hope. The second contains the length and breadth of all the States, with their chief towns, their distance from the city of Washington, and an estimate of the population of the Union.

Notwithstanding its imperfections, the new map claims the attention of the publick. It furnishes all the knowledge, which a work of the kind is intended to convey, and perhaps is as accurate as any map of the United States yet published, and may be procured at comparatively small expense.

ACCOUNT OF THE TOTAL ECLIPSE OF THE SUN,

JUNE 16TH, 1806.

A TOTAL eclipſe of the ſun is a rare and intereſting occurrence. In May, 1706, there was one obſerved in Switzerland and in the ſouthern parts of France. On the 22d of April, 1715, the ſun was totally eclipſed at London. Accounts of both thoſe eclipſes were publiſhed in the tranſactions of the Royal Society. The laſt was obſerved by Dr. Halley, who remarks, that there had not before been ſeen a total eclipſe of the ſun at London, ſince the 20th March, 1140. "Having found," ſays Dr. Halley, "by comparing what had been formerly obſerved of ſolar eclipſes, that the whole ſhadow would fall upon England, I thought it a very proper opportunity to get the dimenſions of the ſhade aſcertained by obſervation, and accordingly I cauſed a ſmall map of England, deſcribing the track and bounds thereof, to be diſperſed all over the kingdom, with a requeſt to the curious to obſerve what they could about it, but more eſpecially to note the time of continuance of total darkneſs." It is to be regretted, that ſome ſuch method had not been adopted in this country, previous to the remarkable eclipſe which we have recently witneſſed. We hope we ſhall be pardoned, when we remark, that our *Savans* appear to have been ſomewhat remiſs in omitting to invite and direct the publick attention on this intereſting oc-

At the ſame time we muſt ex-
ur acknowledgments to the inge-
uthor of a pamphlet, which, to
tent of its circulation, in a great
accompliſhed the deſired purpoſe.
written, we underſtand, by Mr.
w NEWELL, a young printer of
, whoſe predilection for aſtronom-
dies has prompted him to aſſidu-
plication to that ſublime branch of
, and whoſe advances therein are
be reſpectable.

umber of gentlemen in Boſton,
ad furniſhed themſelves with pro-
ſtruments, agreed to meet on the
g of the 16th at the houſe of Mr.
in Buſſey, in Summer ſtreet, for
rpoſe of obſerving the eclipſe.
obſervations, as communicated by
ommittee of arrangements, are as

obſervations were made in Mr. Buſ-
rden with three achromatick teleſ-
which we ſhall diſtinguiſh by the
rs 1, 2, 3. No. 1 magnified about 45
No. 2 was furniſhed with a double
glaſs, and magnified about 70 times;
gnifying power of No. 3 was ſmall,
gave a clear and diſtinct viſion.
me was determined by an excellent
with a ſecond hand. Obſervations
reſponding altitudes for adjuſting
ne were omitted. Suitable inſtru-
on which we could rely were not
to be obtained, and it was not found
ient to pay the requiſite attention,
t which ſuch obſervations would
een nugatory or deluſive. We
re determined to conſider Preſi-
Vebber's clock, at Cambridge, as
ndard, and to compare our watch
immediately after our obſerva-
hould be finiſhed.

gentlemen at teleſcopes No. 1
were placed near to each other.
obſervations correſponded, except-
reſpects the end of the eclipſe.

teleſcope No. 1 and 2:—
nning, 10h. 3′ 21″
nning of total ob-
uration of the ſun, 11. 22′ 31″,
of the ſame, 11. 27′ 09″

of eclipſe by No. 1, 12. 48′ 01″
Ditto, by No. 2, 12. 47′ 59″

ations with teleſcope, No. 3:—
nning, 10h. 3′ 20″
nning of total dark-
ſs, 11. 22′ 40″
of the ſame, 11. 27′ 08″
of the eclipſe, 12. 48′ 07″

The duration of total darkneſs, according to two of the obſervers, was 4′ 38″. By the other, 4′ 28″. Two other gentlemen alſo noted the time of total obſcuration, as nearly as they could by their watches, and both pronounced it to be upwards of 4 minutes.

The duration of the eclipſe, was, by

No. 1, 2h. 44′ 40″.
No. 2, 2. 44′ 38″.
No. 3, 2. 44′ 47″.

Mean duration, by the three obſervations, 2h. 44′ 41⅔″.

The watch was found to be 14″ ſlower than Preſident Webber's clock, with which it was compared in the afternoon. Adding 14″ to each of our obſervations, they may be conſidered as having been made by the clock uſed by the Preſident; allowance ſhould be made however for the ſmall difference of longitude between Boſton and Cambridge, and for the poſſible variation in the rate of going of the watch, between the time of our obſervations and the compariſon made with the clock at Cambridge. The Preſident has not yet finiſhed his obſervations for the correction of his clock. When they ſhall be completed, and, together with his obſervations on the eclipſe, ſhall be communicated, the uſe and value of our obſervations will be better determined.

In this vicinity, and probably throughout New-England, this intereſting phenomenon was obſerved under very favourable circumſtances. The day was remarkably fine. Not a cloud obſcured any portion of the hemiſphere. The air was dry and clear, and the heavens, before the obſcurations, were in a robe of brighteſt azure. The wind was north-weſt in the morning, but ſhifted to north-eaſt after the eclipſe commenced, and continued eaſterly until its completion. The thermometer, expoſed to the open air, in the ſhade, on a north wall, fell eleven degrees. No dew fell. This was aſcertained by placing on a board a piece of ſoft paper, twelve inches ſquare, which was accurately weighed before the commencement of the eclipſe and immediately after the emerſion of the ſun. No difference in the weight was perceived. There was a ſenſible chillineſs, however, in the air, and ſome of the company found an outſide garment very comfortable. The mercury in the barometer ſtood at 30,2 from 8 o'clock, until 2 in P. M.

Venus appeared in the ſouth-weſt, about 15 minutes before the total obſcuration, and was viſible more than 20 minutes after the appearance of light. Our ſituation was not favourable for noticing the ſtars. From a compariſon of the accounts of different perſons in our circle, with reference to a celeſtial globe, it appeared that Aldebaran, Capella, Caſtor, Procyon, and two of the ſtars in Orion were noticed.

A little before the total obſcuration, a deep dark ſhade, reſembling an approaching thunder ſtorm, was obſerved at the weſtward. As the eclipſe went off, a ſimilar appearance was noticed on the eaſtern ſide of the horizon. The departing light of the ſun was ſupportable to the naked eye. It was otherwiſe with the firſt returning light, which was extremely vivid and inexpreſſibly rapid in its acceſs. The portion of the ſun which firſt re-appeared, was, to the naked eye, of a globular form, and ſeemed like a ball of fire.

A luminous ring ſurrounded the moon after the ſun was totally hid. From the accounts given of former total eclipſes of the ſun, this appearance was expected; but in brilliancy and magnitude it ſeems to have exceeded any of which we find an account. In the eclipſe of 1715, abovementioned, Dr. Halley computes the luminous ring to be about "a digit, or perhaps a tenth part of the moon's diameter." We were not prepared to meaſure the breadth of the ring, that appeared at this time, but ſhould judge it to be at leaſt double the dimenſions of that recorded by Dr. Halley. The light was of a pale white, and the ring was, externally, irregular. Vivid corruſcations, of a reddiſh or purple colour, were ſeen with the glaſſes, proceeding from the moon's edge. One of our company, at one moment, counted ſix of theſe lucid pencils, iſſuing from different parts of the orb of the moon, at irregular diſtances, and with ſmaller illuminated points between them, in form and diſpoſition reſembling the points on the card of a common compaſs. The darkneſs was not ſo great as expected. It was found neceſſary however to make uſe of a lanthern to aſcertain the time preciſely by our watch. If we were to judge from the number of ſtars that appeared, the light muſt have been greater, than at the time of full moon; this light, however, did not wholly proceed from the luminous ring above mentioned, which though bright, and exhibiting a ſtrong contraſt to the dark body of the moon, which it incloſed, did not caſt any ſenſible ſhadow. A crepuſcular brightneſs appeared all around, in the lower parts of the hemiſphere, at the time of total obſcuration of the ſun. Dr. Halley notices a ſimilar brightneſs round the horizon in the eclipſe of 1715, and gives a ſatisfactory explanation of it. "So much of the ſegment of our atmoſphere," he obſerves, "as was above the horizon, and was without the cone of the moon's ſhadow, was more or leſs enlightened by the ſun's beams, and its reflection gave a diffuſe light, which made the air ſeem hazy, and hindered the appearance of the ſtars." This brightneſs he remarked as more diſtinguiſhable in the ſouth-eaſt. The ſame remark was made here, by thoſe, moſt favourably ſituated to notice this appearance.

During the total obſcuration, ſome of the company remarked, that the moon, with its ſurrounding glory, appeared nearer to the eye, than the ſun or moon uſually appear. The exhibition was wonderfully magnificent and ſublime, and inſpired one univerſal ſentiment of admiration and awe, which we ſhall not attempt to deſcribe. We ſeemed to be in the more immediate preſence of Deity, while this intereſting ſpectacle was exhibiting in his auguſt temple. The morning was uſhered in with the uſual hum of buſineſs, which gradually diminiſhed as the darkneſs advanced. One uninterrupted ſilence at length prevailed. A freſh breeze, which had prevailed, now ſubſided, and all was calm; the birds retired to reſt; the rolling chariot and the rumbling car were no more heard; the axe and the hammer were ſuſpended. Returning light reanimated the face of things. We ſeemed as in the dawn of creation, when God ſaid *let there be light, and there was light*, and an involuntary cheer of gratulation burſt from the ſpectators, eſpecially the youthful groups in the ſtreets, and on the ſurrounding hills.

The committee, in purſuance of their commiſſion, proceed to report ſome particulars, that eſcaped their perſonal obſervation. The cows on the common, we are told, diſcovered ſenſible marks of agitation—ſome of them left the ground and proceeded homeward, the reſt gathered round a perſon, who was croſſing the common at the time, and followed him with apparent anxiety, as if ſoliciting protection.

We have heard, from ſeveral perſons,

a remark, of a ſingular appearance in the ſhade of trees. The figures of numerous little creſcents were obſerved in many places. We firſt heard them mentioned by ſome gentlemen in the government of the College, who aſſiſted Preſident Webber in his obſervations at Cambridge. The ſame thing was obſerved by ſeveral perſons in this town in yards and gardens, and in the mall. A gentleman at Plymouth, with whoſe letter we are favoured, remarks a ſimilar appearance there. They were called by ſome, the ſhadows of the leaves. This ſeems to be incorrect. They appeared as lucid ſpots, of a faint, white light, and their direction and figure varied with the different phaſes of the eclipſe. It has been ſuggeſted, that they were the image of the ſun, produced by its rays, ſhining through the interſtices of the leaves, on the principle of the Camera Obſcura. This explanation and appears ſatisfactory, and from the beſt accounts we can procure of the direction, they exhibited an inverted image of the ſun, as they ſhould do if produced on the principle above mentioned. It has been aſked indeed, if this ſolution be correct, why does not the entire image of the ſun appear in ſimilar ſituations to daily obſervation? The fact is, that it does thus appear, though it may not have been obſerved, of which any perſon may be ſatisfied, who will examine the ſhade of trees, on a ſmooth ſurface, when the ſun is near the meridian. Faint light ſpots, of a circular form, are very perceptible. They were ſtronger and more diſtinct during the eclipſe, from the deep ſurrounding ſhade. Several perſons have remarked the diſtinct and well-defined ſhade of objects, when the ſun was nearly obſcured. It ſeemed to them that a profile might be taken as perfectly as from a ſhade thrown on a wall by means of a lamp. We do not find, however, that this appearance under the leaves of trees has been before noticed on ſimilar occaſions.

We wiſh for further obſervations on this ſubject, and that other explanations may be offered, if what is here ſuggeſted be not ſatisfactory.

We have taken ſome pains to collect accounts from other places of obſervations on this remarkable eclipſe. We were particularly deſirous of aſcertaining the northern and ſouthern limits of the ſhadow. At Newport, Nantucket, and Martha's Vineyard, the eclipſe, we are informed, was not total: but it was total at New-Bedford, at Rocheſter, at Wareham, and at Falmouth, on the northern ſide of the Vineyard ſound. It was not total at Portland, nor at Biddeford; but it was ſo at Kennebunk, between Biddeford and Portſmouth. If this information be correct, the breadth of the ſhadow was about 120 miles, and enveloped the entire territory of Maſſachuſetts *proper*, excepting Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket.

Some perſons, who were on the water in the harbour, noticed, during the total obſcuration, particles of congealed miſt, reſembling ſnow, flitting through the air. The ſame appearance is ſaid to have been noticed at Glouceſter, on Cape Ann, but we have no accurate information on the ſubject. At Plymouth, the fiſhermen in the bay obſerved the luminous appearance of the ſpray of the ſea, which is frequently apparent in the night on the ocean. Dr. Halley intimates ſome appearances of alarm among the *fiſh*, during the eclipſe of 1715. We have not heard any ſimilar remark at this time.

No ſpots were ſeen upon the face of the ſun. The luminous drops, which are mentioned by many aſtronomers as very apparent in former eclipſes when the ſun is reduced to a ſmall thread of light, were noticed by ſome obſervers; by others they were not ſeen. Some ſmall inequalities were obſerved, by ſome of our company, on the lower edge of the moon; but they could not be perceived by others. Some perſons have remarked, that the luminous ring round the moon, at the time of total obſcuration of the ſun, was ſmaller and of a fainter light on the upper ſide, than on any other part of her circumference.

Some further particulars, which we have not leiſure at preſent to digeſt, may be the ſubject of a future communication."

Boſton, June 20th.

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Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

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A new thermometer has been invented for regiſtering the higheſt and loweſt temperatures in the abſence of the obſerver, which is ſaid to be a more ſimple, as well as a leſs expenſive, inſtrument than Six's thermometer. It conſiſts in two thermometers, one mercurial, and the other of alkohols, having three ſtems horizontal. The former has for its index a ſmall piece of magnetical ſteel wire, and the latter a minute thread of glaſs, having its two ends formed into ſmall knobs by fuſion in the flame of a candle. The magnetical bit of wire lies in the vacant ſpace of the mercurial thermometer, and is puſhed forward by the mercury whenever the temperature riſes and puſhes that fluid againſt it; but when the temperature falls, and the fluid retires, this index is left behind, and ſhews the *maximum*. The other index, or bit of glaſs, lies in the tube of the ſpirit-thermometer, immerſed in the alkohol, and when the ſpirit retires by the depreſſion of temperature, the index is carried along with it in apparent contact with its interiour ſurface; but on increaſe of temperature the ſpirit goes forward and leaves the index behind, which therefore ſhews the *minimum* of temperature ſince it was ſet. The ſteel index is eaſily brought to the mercury by applying a magnet on the outſide of the tube, and the other is properly placed at the end of the column alkohol by inclining the whole inſtrument.

☞ ERRATUM. In page 321, firſt column, 6 line from bottom for paſſions read paſſion.

EDITORS' NOTES.

OUR present number is enriched with a production from the pen of the Hon. J. Q. Adams. By making use of the Anthology for enchasing the jewel, he has conferred an honour, of which we are not insensible, and a compliment of which we are proud. If the Professor of Rhetorick, in his new rambles through poetry and prose, should note any thing of "pleasant aspect" for the general view, we should be happy in displaying it for publick applause. We wish him complete success in his present literary exertions; and though, for each course of his lectures, he will not receive the splendid Didactron of Isocrates, a thousand minæ, yet we trust, that his discourses will be such, as Quintilian might praise, and that the consequent renown will fully compensate the scanty pecuniary emolument of the new professorship.

Many subscribers to the American edition of Rees's Cyclopædia have expressed in strong terms their disapprobation of the mutilated state in which several articles are exhibited. We shall not give, at present, any opinion respecting the extent of these mutilations; though, from the respectability of the complainants, we are afraid they are important. Should this appear to be the case, we have no hesitation in asserting, that such conduct is altogether unjustifiable. Let the American editors *add* what they think useful or important, provided they be careful to distinguish what they insert, from that which rests upon the authority of the learned and laborious Dr. Rees; but let us have no garblings, no mutilations, no index expurgatorius. The work in question is of the most respectable class. Upwards of forty of the first literary men in Great Britain and Ireland are engaged to furnish the various articles; and the whole is under the superintendence of an editor, who has already proved himself fully equal to the task. That any men should venture to *alter* such a work would argue no little hardihood, and he would more probably incur the suspicion of overweening confidence, than inspire a belief in his capacity to improve the publication. But that this should be done by *anonymous* criticks, of whose character for judgment and talents the world knows nothing, is an impertinence, for which we cannot find a name. It transfers the weighty responsibility of the work from those, who are able to sustain it, to the shoulders of a Mr. Nobody, whom we have neither seen nor heard. We hesitate not to say, that the *whole* of the Cyclopædia, as edited by Dr. Rees, ought to be given to the subscribers. The American publishers have an undoubted right to add, to explain, to correct an error, or insert a caution, within the limitation we have mentioned; but this right does not extend to mutilation or omission, which has a tendency to confound all literary authority, and to render the ground we tread upon uncertain and unsure. We desire to be understood, not as giving a decided opinion how far this has been done in the work referred to; but are the more earnest in our expressions, because the practice has been shamefully prevalent in American re-publications; so much so that no literary man is safe in depending upon many of them, as giving the ungarbled and unsophisticated sense of the original author. With respect to the work in question, we hope to give it, in a future number, a thorough examination, and to administer strict justice between the editors and the publick.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

JULY, 1806.

ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No. 7.*

Government...Laws...Lawyers.

The kingdom of the two Sicilies, Naples, became an independent state after the dissolution of the Roman empire, of which it was a fragment, and has been from its origin the perpetual seat of discord and civil wars; subjugated by one nation after another, the fertility of its climate, and the labour of its inhabitants, have been insufficient to gratify the rapacity of the conquerors. Yet so lavish is nature of her bounty to this country, that notwithstanding the tremendous effects of earthquakes and volcanoes, and the devastations of continual wars, an interval of a few years of peace always restored its former prosperity. But the immediate rapine and violence of these turbulent times, terrible as they were, have not been so pernicious, as the civil and political consequences that resulted from the irruptions and transient dominion of so many different nations. The former only afflicted a single generation, but the latter have been entailed upon posterity.

This beautiful, but unfortunate country, was successively ravaged by the Normans, the Germans, the Spaniards, and involved in perpetual quarrels with the intriguing ambition of the papal power, when the thunder of the Vatican affrighted the greater part of Europe, in those ages debased by every species of tyranny and superstition. Every invader brought the laws of his own country; the Neapolitans, besides retaining the Roman jurisprudence of the Justinian code, adopted the Norman code, and, that the confusion might be worse confounded, joined to these, with the system of feudal rights and tenures, Spanish customs and authorities, incorporating occasionally with the rest, a papal ordination.

This complicated system, or rather this confused medley of laws, many of which, though they were originally good, yet were so successfully veiled in tedious form, as to obscure their meaning and destroy their utility, now forms the unwieldy, intricate system of jurisprudence in this kingdom. It will be easy to imagine the state of confusion and uncertainty, in which such a system must place all sorts of claims or agreements, subject to legal discussion; that the most equitable tenure of property must be insecure, where such a wide field is left open for chicanery and legal vexation and delay. Indeed the single fact, that there are twenty thousand lawyers in Naples, will give the best idea of it; and it may be readily conceived, that from the body of laws just mentioned, (I have been told, they sometimes come to court with a cartload of volumes to cite authorities and precedents) it is easy for them to protract any decision, till the subject of dispute has cost more than its intrinsic value. A fertile soil, a genial sky, and the exertions of industry, would, in a few years after the ravages of war, again give to the grain its customary protection in this country against the fervid heat of the sun, the luxuriant shade of the vine, festooning from the olive, and other fruit trees, planted at regular distances;...yet these charming fields must be esteemed uncertain wealth, when they are held on such a precarious tenure.

It is a singular fact, that the present sovereign is the first king who was ever born in the country. A *patriot king* may be an imaginary being. Surely he cannot be looked for here, where he has not even the slight attachment of birth. Continually subjugated by foreign nations, they have had a succession of monarchs, strangers to the country they governed, and more solicitous about their personal splendour and power, than the happiness of the people, over whom they tyrannized. This, with the wretched state of their laws, sufficiently explains, why this fine country has always been the prey of others, and why the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which from the fertility of its soil, the genial influence of its climate, and its geographical situation, ought to have been powerful and respectable, has been too weak to resist any rapacious invader, and too contemptible to excite the pity or protection of any respectable power. The fertile island of Sicily, once the granary of the Roman empire, hardly gives more consequence to its sovereign, than his kingdom of Jerusalem. Yet from its immense resources, if inhabited by an industrious people, whose earnings should be protected by the laws, this island ought to make its owner a respectable, powerful sovereign. In its present state, it is half a desert, and half a convent. Nor do the continental possessions afford much greater resources; the provinces of the two Calabrias pay no revenues to the crown, and their principal contribution is a yearly convoy of a hundred ruffians to the galleys at Naples.

The Museum at Portici is one monument in favour of the government: no recent researches have been made, though doubtless much remains to be discovered. We would pardon, however, this government for letting the skeletons of the inhabitants of Pompeia repose in the houses, where they have been buried for eighteen centuries. This is only disappointing the curiosity of the artist and antiquarian. But when a stranger witnesses the degraded state of their country, and the indifference with which they suffer its great natural resources to lie dormant, he cannot help execrating their apathy.

The king of Naples, like his cousin, the king of Spain, is extravagantly fond of hunting; it seems to be a passion of the Spanish line. Yet while the king is hunting boars in the wilds of Caserta, his ministers are hunting his subjects in every part of the kingdom. Had the Neapolitan court been less occupied with the pleasures of the chace, or other pleasures less ferocious, and economizing their resources, endeavoured to excite the industry of the people; diminished the herd of insignificant noblesse; given a body of regular laws for civil decisions; occupied the Lazzaroni in cultivating Sicily, or employed them in manufactures; had they availed themselves of their advantageous position for commerce,... the king of the Two Sicilies would have been a powerful sovereign, though now obliged to cringe, alternately, to the great powers of Europe.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, Eng.

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.

PLATO, de Legib. IV.

Continued from page 299.

The justice as well as the acuteness of these remarks was universally acknowledged, and Le Clerc was sensible that his character as a critick was lost, if they remained unanswered. While he deliberated on what measures he should adopt, a manuscript was left at his house by a stranger, who in the title-page called himself Philargyrius Cantabrigiensis. This book contained remarks on the fragments and corrections of several errours, which had escaped Phileleutherus Lipsiensis, in his emendations.

In 1711, Le Clerc published this anonymous defence. He prefixed a long preface, in which he attempted to wipe off the stain which his critical abilities had received. His arguments, however, in general, are feeble. He does not *name* Bentley as his adversary, but by several hints points out his suspicions.

This answer to Bentley was written by Pauw, a man of no very extraordinary abilities. He was, however, a laborious critick, and tolerably versed in Greek literature. The remarks do not deserve any exalted commendation. Bentley, in all probability wholly disregarded them, as a few years afterwards, when he published another edition of his notes in Menander and Philemon, he did not appear, as far as we can remember, to have been influenced in any single instance by the observations of Philargyrius Cantabrigiensis. Many of them display acuteness; but a settled determination, at all events, to defend Le Clerc, and depreciate Bentley, is too apparent.

It was observed by the learned Dr. Salter, the late master of the Charterhouse, that the critical remarks interspersed through this work were of little value; and, in the discussion of philological subjects, his sentiments deserve attention. He was a very accurate Greek scholar. His reading was universal, and extended through the whole circle of ancient literature. He was acquainted with the poets, historians, orators, philosophers, and criticks of Greece and Rome. His memory was naturally tenacious; and it had acquired great artificial powers, if such an expression be allowable, by using no notes, when he delivered his sermons. So retentive, indeed, were his faculties, that, till a few months before his death, he could quote long passages from almost every author whose work he had perused, even with a critical exactness. Nor were his studies confined to the writers of antiquity. He was equally conversant with English literature, and with the languages and productions of the learned and ingenious, in various parts of Europe. But this is not a proper place to enlarge on the classical erudition, or eminent talents, of Dr. Salter. We could not, however, refrain from drawing this little sketch of his character, as, in his earlier life, he had been acquainted with Bentley, and cherished his memory with fond respect. He preserved many anecdotes of that great critick, which have been published from his papers,* and are now incorporated into this account. Those who were acquainted with Salter, and know how to estimate the value of his erudition, will peruse these honorary lines with some pleasure, which may perhaps receive augmentation, by finding his name recorded in the life of his favourite Bentley.

Τυς γαρ θανυσι χρη τον ου τεθνηκοτα
Τιμας διδοντα. EURIP. PHŒNISS.

While Dr. Bentley's reputation was disseminated through the continent, by his critical disquisitions, his domestick peace was disturbed by a dispute with the members of the college over which he presided. His time was of course much engaged by the active part which he was obliged to take in these disputes, and his mind must have naturally been harassed by continued suspense. His classical pursuits, however, were not remitted. In 1711 he published his long expected edition of Horace, which he dedicated to Harley, Earl of Oxford, who was then minister.

The opinions of the learned with respect to this edition are various. By some it was extolled, as the greatest work that had appeared since the revival of letters, and by others it was ridiculed, and treated with contempt. If we may be allowed to give our sentiments on this subject, for

'Who shall *decide*, when Doctors disagree,'

we must confess, we think that Bentley has received too much praise for his corrections of Horace from one party, and has been too much condemned by the other.

Some of his emendations display wonderful acumen and critical perspicuity, and some of the passages, which he has restored from the manuscript copies, should certainly be admitted in all future editions. But many of his remarks are more eminent for ingenuity than judgment. It should likewise be remembered, that in his own edition, which was published at Cambridge in quarto, he did not incorporate the most daring of his corrections into the text, but inserted them in his notes, which he placed at the end of the volume, and that he always inserts at the bottom of the page the *readings* of former editors.

The dedication to the Earl of Oxford was dated from Trinity College, on the 6th of the Ides of December, which was the birthday of Horace. It is a lively, ingenious composition. The former part of it contains an address to Horace, with a comparison between his Mecænas, in the court of Augustus, and Harley, whom he styles the modern Mecænas. The latter part consists of a short history of the earl's immediate ancestors.

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* See the life of Bentley, in the Biographia Britannia, and the notes on the edition of the Diſſertation of Phalaris, publiſhed by the learned Engliſh printer, Bowyer. The facts recorded in this account are generally derived from theſe ſources. The mode of arrangement and many of the critical remarks are original.

Dr. Bentley originally intended to have dedicated his edition of Horace to the Earl of Halifax, who had been at Trinity College. But as the work was delayed until the year 1711, when the ministry was changed, he determined to place it under the patronage of the Earl of Oxford.

At the accession of King George I. he was told that this dedication would most probably hurt his interest. In reply he said, that he should share the fate of Hare, Gooch, and Sherlock. These three, however, all became bishops, while Bentley died Master of Trinity College.

In the preface he informs us, that as the weighty cares, which had devolved upon him, for some years, by his situation as master of a college, had prevented a regular application to any serious study, he determined to devote a part of his leisure hours to the publication of some entertaining author, lest he should banish entirely his regard for the muses, and his favourite pursuits. He fixed upon Horace, because he was an universal favourite.

In his notes he tells us, that explanations of passages, which related to the customs or to the history of the ancients, form no part of his design. His intention was to correct errours, and restore genuine readings, either by the authority of copies, or by conjecture.

In his notes he availed himself of the printed editions, and of several manuscripts, the readings of which had escaped the researches of former editors.

The orthography, in his edition of Horace, appears affected†, because it is unusual; but as it is the mode of spelling, which appears by medals and inscriptions to have been used in the time of Augustus, and which is found in the most ancient copies of Horace, he seems rather to merit praise than censure for attempting such a revival.

To enter into a critical examination of his notes would far exceed our limits, and as the book is well known, the criticism would appear rather ostentatious than necessary. The following emendation we cannot help transcribing, for although Bentley thought it too bold a correction for him to admit into the text, we think it affords a happy specimen of critical sagacity:

> Ceſſit inermis tibi blandienti
>   Janitor aulæ
> Cerberus; quamvis furiale centum
> Muniant angues caput, exeatque
> Spiritus teter, fanieſque manet
>   Ore trilingui.

So Bentley would read this passage in Horace's Ode to Mercury, III. XI. In common editions the 3d line stands thus:

> Muniant angues caput ejus, atque
> Spiritus, &c.

Dacier observes, that the word *ejus* debases the whole poem. There is a passage in Ovid of the same cast, but that should not be admitted as a defence for an expression, so mean and prosaick. The alteration may be defended by several similar passages. Among his corrections the change of "*Ille et nefasto tu posuit die*" into "*Illum*

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† *Volgus* for *Vulgus*, *Divom* for *Divum*, and the plural accuſatives in *is* inſtead of *es*, when the gen. plur. ended in *ium*. *Compeſco*, *Inpius*, are more defenſible, and deſerve to be adopted. This ſubject has been treated with great ingenuity by the elegant Scheller, in his *Præcepta ſili bene Ciceroniani*; a work which is little known in this country, but merits an attentive peruſal from every ſcholar. Let it be remembered that the learned Heyne, [illegible] has uſed the ſame orthography in his Virgil.

et nefasto," &c. is likewise very happy.

He has explained innumerable passages, which defied former editors, and drawn forth latent beauties in several verses, by slight changes in the punctuation, equally judicious and acute.

Dr. Hare gave the following character of Bentley's edition of Horace: "When I consider how small a book Horace is, how much he has been the delight and admiration of the learned at all times, what pains the ablest criticks have taken with him, and that if others have done nothing, it seems to be for no other reason but that they thought there was nothing left for them; when I make these reflections, and consider on the other hand what one man has been able to do, after so many great names, who had the use of no manuscripts but what seemed already to have been exhausted, and wanted many of the best, it is hard to say, whether the pleasure or the admiration were the greater with which I read this incomparable work. A man must have very little acquaintance with the ancients, or have no taste for their writings, who can forbear greatly admiring, or being greatly pleased with a performance, wherein exactness and perspicuity, life, spirit, beauty, and order are restored to so many places which were before corrupted, or misplaced, or obscured, for want of being rightly read, or truly understood: for want of an emendation of the text, or of knowing the history or custom pointed at, or the passages of the Greek poets, which Horace directly imitated, or the more secret allusions, which he was above all the Latins happy in."

In 1713 a new edition of Bentley's Horace was published by the Wetsteins, at Amsterdam. They procured a corrected copy from the Doctor, removed the notes from the end,* and placed them under the text, in which they inserted all the additional corrections. They likewise added the verbal index of Horace, which Aveman had compiled with great labour; and the emendations of Bentley, and several important quotations incorporated into it by Isaac Verburg, who was afterwards well known as the editor of Cicero. By these judicious improvements, the Dutch edition is rendered far superiour to that published at Cambridge.

It was the fate of Bentley to be constantly baited by his enemies, who were more numerous than powerful. The first literary character, perhaps, of this age remarked, that "Abuse was only the rebound of praise;" and, indeed, it is vain to censure those whom none commend. The merit of this great critick roused the envy of the half learned, who gave full scope to their malignity.

In 1712 came out "The Odes of Horace, in Latin and English; with a translation of Dr. Bentley's notes, to which are added *notes* upon *notes*; done in the Bentleian style and manner." A translation of the dedication, preface, epodes, and life of Horace by Suetonius, were afterwards published to complete this work, which appeared in twenty-four parts, and forms two volumes.

The Odes are translated into English verse by different authors, and in some of them there is poetry and elegance in the version. In the *notes upon notes* there is a greater display of wit and pleasantry, than of criticism. Bentley's remarks are abridged, and the authorities which he has cited are sometimes quoted by reference, and sometimes suppressed. The language of the translated *notes* is coarse and vulgar, and that of the *notes upon notes* is not more elegant. We do not think that the authors of this publication were ever discovered. It is not, indeed, of much consequence who they were, as, in our opinion, they have not executed the design which they proposed in their preface with much spirit or humour. Some of Bentley's notes are arrogant, and several of his corrections are hazardous, but this publication does not seem calculated either by its weight or ingenuity to expose the critick's haughtiness or boldness. The title of *Bentivoglio*, which is assigned to the Doctor in the first of these notes, was borrowed from the Dialogues of the Dead, which King wrote, during the dispute about Phalaris, in order to ridicule Bentley.

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* The custom of placing notes at the end of a work has been adopted by several writers. But surely it is a custom "more honoured in the breach, than the observance." We observe, that the celebrated historian, Mr. Gibbon, has inserted the notes and text in the same page, in his latter volumes, though he placed them at the end of the first.

(To be continued.)

REMARKER. No. 11.

Non ignara mali miseris succurrere disco.

The pursuit of happiness is the grand object of human life, which is generally wasted in striving to attain a phantom that is not found to be illusive, till it is too late to profit by the discovery. Each individual seems happy to the rest, because he who cannot deceive himself, gratifies his vanity by deceiving the rest of society. The superficial observer mistakes the affected simper, the heartless laugh, for that generous cheerfulness of temper, and gaiety of heart, the rarest gifts of heaven. Many of those who seem to join the outward pomp to the inward possession of happiness, are consuming life in "splendid misery."

Many abandon the idea of being happy, and confine their ambition to appearing so to others. Society seems gay, the surface is decked in the gayest colours; like some of those mountains whose sides are covered with verdure and flowers, but beneath the exteriour crust it is a dreary, confused mixture of warring materials, that every moment menace explosion and ruin.

That nothing should be wanting to facilitate the grand pursuit, that the simple and unwary should be placed on their guard, rules for the attainment of happiness have been given with as much precision as demonstrations of mathematical problems, with as much variety as receipts for cooking, and as much fashion as modes of dress. Some strive to be happy by rule, and are as successful, as a physician who acts only on theory. Some dread system, and are the sport of every accident; they are driven like a fallen leaf, now aloft in air, now fluttering in the dust, till the fatal blast immerses them in the pool of oblivion. Some have solaced their own discontents, not by describing what are the means of attaining happiness, but by guarding the heedless against some of the errours that occasion failure in the pursuit. Those who are already far advanced in the journey of life, have often warned the crowd who are following, not to entertain too sanguine hopes of the objects on the way, which they behold in the flattering deceptions of perspective, but which those who have passed look back upon with contempt and disappointment.

But it is not alone to an extravagant appreciation of the various amusements and employments of life, that we owe our vexations and sufferings; various causes combine to produce that satiety and discontent, which, if concealed by a few, is felt by all.

Among these, one of the most common, fruitful, natural, but inexcusable, is a wrong estimate of the character of our friends. In despite of experience, we are constantly forming calculations, which we know will be falsified. We fret to-day for what vexed us yesterday; and our feelings have been wounded in the very same manner they have been a thousand times before. Yet we shall repeat to-morrow the same faults, and nourish peevishness and mortification, because we still calculate upon what men ought to be, not on what they are.

While the sinews of the mind, as well as those of the body, are yet flexible, before age and habit have moulded the temper of the one, or the carriage of the other; it is laudable to inculcate every generous and virtuous precept, to confer every exteriour grace and polish that will make the possessor useful and beloved. But when education has completed her task, when moral and physical habits are formed, and the characteristick marks are so strongly impressed, that time will only stiffen and confirm them, then we should be contented with what education has accomplished, and not weakly repine that it has atchieved no more. After the character has once acquired its tone, and intercourse with society has raised or depressed it to the capacity and disposition of the individual; the attempt to change it would be no less absurd, than to see those whose persons are stiffened by age, attempt to acquire, from the skill of a dancing master, the flexible movements and graceful positions that can only be attained when the limbs are pliable, and the blood frolicks in the veins.

Should every one reflect, what a large portion of those little sorrows and vexations, that fritter away existence, would be obviated by expecting no more from those about us, than what their character authorizes, he would endeavour to correct his expectations, and chastise his wishes. Yet I have known persons, who for thirty years have calculated upon qualities in others, which the experience of the same period had too frequently convinced them did not exist, and were perpetually hoping for opinions and actions, which a little reflection would have convinced them they had no right to expect.

Every man has some virtues, no one but who has many faults. It would be infatuation to expect from Iulus the strength of Entellus. Let us rejoice then in the good qualities of our friends, and excuse their faults; and if we strictly guard against expecting from them talents and feelings which we know they do not possess, we shall dry up one copious source of disappointment and vexation.

Translated for the Anthology from the Cours de Literature of La Harpe.

BRITANNICUS.

GENIUS is brilliant from its birth. A splendour is cast around it by its first rays. It is the day-star, which, arising from the brink of the horizon, illuminates by the first appearance of its full orb the whole extent of the heavens. The eyes of men are dazzled, and their minds humiliated and overwhelmed by the splendour that assails them. Such are the first effects of genius; but this sudden and lively impression is, by degrees, softened and effaced. Man, recovered from his first astonishment, looks up, and dares to observe with a fixed attention that which at first he had only admired in confusion. He soon becomes accustomed and familiarised with the object of his respect, and is soon disposed to search for faults and defects to such a degree, as even to invent them. It seems as if he wished to avenge himself for the surprise obtained over his vanity, and genius has time enough to pass, in expiating by a long course of outrages, that moment of glory and triumph, which could not be refused it by that humanity which it subdues at first sight.

Such was the treatment received by the author of Andromache. They opposed him at first to Corneille; and this was great praise, if we recollect the admiration, so just and so profound, which must have been inspired by the author of the Cid, of Cinna, and the Horaces, until that time without a rival, master of the field, and surrounded with his trophies. The personal enemies of this great man saw, no doubt with pleasure, a young poet arising, who promised to divide France, and share in her applause; but these enemies at that time were few in number. His old age, unfortunately too fruitful in productions unworthy of him, consoled them for his former successes. On the contrary, the superiority of Racine, from this moment so decisive and so brilliant, must have spread terrour among all those who aspired to the palm of tragedy.

It is easily conceived, how much a success like that of Andromache must have excited the jealousy of all who aspired to glory in the same career. To that numerous party of inferiour writers, who, without loving one another and without harmonizing in any thing else, always combine as it were by instinct against talents that threaten them, were united that species of men, who, transported by an exclusive enthusiasm, had declared that Corneille never would be equalled, and who were determined that Racine should not dare to give them the lie. Add to all these interests against him that secret disposition which, in its foundation, is not wholly unjust, and which inclines us to proportion the severity of our judgments to the merit of the man who is to be judged. Such were the obstacles which opposed Racine after Andromache appeared, and when Britannicus was presented, envy was under arms.

Envy, that passion so odious and so vile that it is never pitied miserable as it is, never breaks out with more fury than in the contentions of the theatre. It is there that it encounters talents in all the splendour of its powers. It is there that it loves to combat eminence; it is there that it attacks it with so much the greater advantage, that it can conceal the hand that strikes the blow. Confounded in a tumultuous crowd, it is not obliged to blush. It has moreover so little to do, and the theatrical enthusiasm is so feeble and so easily disturbed, the judgments of men there assembled are dependent on so many circumstances, over which the author has no control, and are decided by motives sometimes so trifling that, whenever a party has been formed against a good dramatick work, the success of it has been impeded or retarded. Examples are not wanting; but if I had only that of Britannicus, abandoned in its first representation, would not this be sufficient?

We see by the preface which the author placed at the head of the first edition of his piece, that he warmly resented this injustice. It is but too customary to allege this kind of sensibility, as a crime in men of talents, although there is none perhaps more excusable, or more natural. No doubt there would be much philosophy in detaching ourselves entirely from our works the moment we have composed them; but I demand of those, who know a little of the human heart, how this cold indifference can be compatible with that divinity of imagination, which is necessary to produce a good tragedy? To require things so contrary is to be as reasonable as the woman in La Fontaine, who wanted a husband neither cold nor jealous. The fabulist judiciously adds, "Mark well these two points."

I know the vulgar objection, that an author cannot judge himself. No, to be sure, not when a work comes first out of his hands; and indeed at no other time, if he is but an ordinary man: in this case he is no more capable of judging, than of writing well: he sees no excellence beyond what he has reached. But experience proves, that, after the moment of composition, a man of superiour talents and information can judge himself, as well and even better than any other. I shall produce very striking proofs of this, when I come to speak of Voltaire. At present all that I require is, that we pardon Racine for having had reason to be angry, when his judges were in the wrong to condemn him.

The publick soon recovered from its errour; Britannicus remained in possession of the stage; and Racine, in an edition of his collected works, suppressed his first preface. We readily pardon injustice, when it is repaired. He had not however forgotten it: this is manifest from the manner, in which he expresses himself concerning the fortune of this tragedy. "You see here, of all my pieces, that on which, I can truly say, I have laboured with the greatest care. Nevertheless I acknowledge, that the success of it at first was not answerable to my hopes. It had scarcely appeared upon the stage, when there arose a host of criticks, who threatened its destruction. I thought indeed that its destiny would be less happy, than that of my other tragedies; but finally it happened to this piece, as it will always to works that have some merit....the criticks have disappeared, and the piece remains. It is at this time, of all my productions, that which the court and the city see repeated with the most satisfaction; and if I have done any thing which has any solidity, and which merits any praise, the greatest part of the bes judges agree in opinion this it is, this same Britannicus." Voltaire, too, seems to be of this opinion. He has somewhere said, "Britannicus is the tragedy of the connoisseurs." Nevertheless he esteemed Athaliah before it for the merit of invention and the sublimity of the style, and Andromache and Iphigenia for theatrical effect. But, it will be said, if this effect is the first object of the art, how can there be any thing that the connoisseurs prefer? I answer, nothing surely, when to this effect are united the other sorts of beauties, which the same art admits, as in Iphigenia and Andromache. But these connoisseurs distinguish that in a work, which the nature of the subject affords to the author, from that, which he can owe only to himself. We have pieces upon the stage which draw many tears from the audience, which, nevertheless, have not procured any great reputation to their authors; for example, Ariane and Inès. Why? It is because, with much interest, they fail in many other qualities, which constitute dramatical perfection; and the feebleness of other productions of the same authors have shown, that a man of ordinary talents, in treating of certain situations, more easy to manage than others, and more naturally interesting, may obtain success; whereas there are other subjects, in which the author cannot support himself, but by the most exalted abilities in all parts of the art, and by beauties, which belong only to the greatest talents: and of this kind is Britannicus.

The circumstance which excites pity in this piece is the mutual love of Britannicus and Junia, and the death of the young prince; but love is here much less tragical, and has an effect much less sensible, than in Andromache. Nevertheless the union of the two lovers is traversed by the jealousy of Nero; the life of the prince is threatened, as soon as the character of the tyrant is developed, and his death is the catastrophe, which terminates the piece. What is the reason, then, that love produces here impressions much less lively, than in Andromache? If we search for the reason of this, we shall find, that the study of tragedy is at the same time the study of the heart. I have remarked, at the theatre, that love, combatted by foreign obstacles, however interesting it may be even in that case, is never so much so, as it is by the torments which arise from itself; and afterwards comparing the theatre with nature, of which it is the image, I have been convinced that this relation is exact, and that the greatest evils of love are not commonly those which happen to it from abroad, but those which it makes for itself. Nothing is so much to be dreaded by lovers as their own heart. Difficulties, dangers, absence, separation, nothing bears any comparison with the torments of jealousy, the suspicion of infidelity, the horrours of treachery. I shall have occasion to apply and to investigate this principle, when I come to examine, why Zaire and Tancrede are the two pieces, in which love is the most distressing, and cause our tears to flow in the greatest abundance and the most bitterness.

Junia and Britannicus are two very young persons, who love each other with all the sincerity, good faith, and candour of their age. A painting of their love could offer nothing but the softest touches. Their passions are as ingenuous as their characters. They are sure of each other, and if the artifice of Nero causes to Britannicus one moment of inquietude, it cannot excite him to any desperation, and one moment afterwards he is reassured. This love therefore has nothing in it to take a strong possession of the souls of the spectators, which we cannot entirely command but by strong and multiplied shocks. The death of Britannicus, therefore, related in the fifth act, in the presence of Junia, produces more of horrour for Nero, than of compassion for her; her love has not occupied place enough in the piece for the catastrophe to make a very lively impression. The soft and feeble character of Junia excites no apprehensions of any terrible, and the resolution she takes to place herself in the number of the vestal virgins, tho' conformable enough to the manners and decorum of the age, is not a very tragical, event. This fifth act is therefore the feeble part of the work, and it is that which gave the greatest advantage to the enemies of Racine. But they closed their eyes to the beauties of the four former acts; beauties of such excellence, that for a century they seem to have been every day more sensibly felt, and to have excited increasing admiration. The enemies of the author, to console themselves under the success of Andromache, had said, that it was true, he understood how to treat of love; but that this was all his talent; that he would never be able to design characters with the vigour of Corneille, nor to treat like him of the policy of courts. Such is the course of prejudice: they take revenge, for the talents which they cannot refuse to a writer, by refusing him those which he has not yet attempted to employ. Burrhus, Agrippina, Narcissus, and above all Nero, were a terrible answer to these unjust prepossessions. But this answer was not at first understood. The merit of a piece, which united the art of Tacitus with that of Virgil, escaped the observation of the greatest number of spectators. The word politicks is not once pronounced; but the policy which reigns in courts, more or less in proportion as they are more or less corrupted, has never been painted in characters so true, so profound, and so energetick, and the colours are worthy of the design.

To be continued.

GOLDSMITH AND JOHNSON.

The following is an extract from the "Memoirs of Richard Cumberland, written by himself," a very interesting work, which has just appeared from the press of Messrs. Brisban & Brannan, of New York.

At this time I did not know Oliver Goldsmith even by person; I think our first meeting chanced to be at the British-Coffee-House; when we came together, we very speedily coalesced, and I believe he forgave me for all the little fame I had got by the success of my West-Indian, which had put him to some trouble, for it was not his nature to be unkind, and I had soon an opportunity of convincing him how incapable I was of harbouring resentment, and how zealously I took my share in what concerned his interest and reputation. That he was fantastically and whimsically vain all the world knows, but there was no settled and inherent malice in his heart. He was tenacious to a ridiculous extreme of certain pretensions, that did not, and by nature could not, belong to him, and at the same time inexcusably careless of the fame, which he had powers to command. His table-talk was, as Garrick aptly compared it, like that of a parrot, whilst he wrote like Apollo; he had gleams of eloquence, and at times a majesty of thought, but in general his tongue and his pen had two very different styles of talking. What foibles he had he took no pains to conceal, the good qualities of his heart were too frequently obscured by the carelessness of his conduct, and the frivolity of his manners. Sir Joshua Reynolds was very good to him, and would have drilled him into better trim and order for society, if he would have been amenable, for Reynolds was a perfect gentleman, had good sense, great propriety with all the social attributes, and all the graces of hospitality, equal to any man. He well knew how to appreciate men of talents, and how near a-kin the Muse of poetry was to that art, of which he was so eminent a master. From Goldsmith he caught the subject of his famous Ugolino; what aids he got from others, if he got any, were worthily bestowed and happily applied.

There is something in Goldsmith's prose, that to my ear is uncommonly sweet and harmonious; it is clear, simple, easy to be understood; we never want to read his period twice over, except for the pleasure it bestows; obscurity never calls us back to a repetition of it. That he was a poet there is no doubt, but the paucity of his verses does not allow us to rank him in that high station, where his genius might have carried him. There must be bulk, variety, and grandeur of design to constitute a first-rate poet. The Deserted Village, Traveller, and Hermit are all specimens beautiful as such, but they are only birds eggs on a string, and eggs of small birds too. One great magnificent *whole* must be accomplished before we can pronounce upon the *maker* to be the ὁ ποιητής. Pope himself never earned this title by a work of any magnitude but his Homer, and that, being a translation, only constitutes him an accomplished versifier. Distress drove Goldsmith upon undertakings, neither congenial with his studies, nor worthy of his talents. I remember him, when in his chamber in the Temple, he shewed me the beginning of his *Animated Nature*; it was with a sigh, such as genius draws, when hard necessity diverts it from its bent to drudge for bread, and talk of birds and beasts and creeping things, which Pidcock's show-man would have done as well. Poor fellow, he hardly knew an ass from a mule, nor a turkey from a goose, but when he saw it on the table. But publishers hate poetry, and Paternoster-Row is not Parnassus. Even the mighty Doctor Hill, who was not a very delicate feeder, could not make a dinner out of the press till by a happy transformation into Hannah Glass, he turned himself into a cook, and sold receipts for made dishes to all the savoury readers in the kingdom. Then indeed the press acknowledged him second in fame only to John Bunyan; his feasts kept pace in sale with Nelson's fasts, and when his own name was fairly written out of credit, he wrote himself into immortality under an alias. Now though necessity, or I should rather say the desire of finding money for a masquerade, drove Oliver Goldsmith upon abridging histories, and turning Buffon into

English, yet I much doubt if, without that spur, he would ever have put his Pegasus into action; no, if he had been rich, the world would have been poorer than it is by the loss of all the treasures of his genius and the contributions of his pen.

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Who will say that Johnson himself would have been such a champion in literature, such a front-rank soldier in the fields of fame, if he had not been pressed into the service, and driven on to glory with the bayonet of sharp necessity pointed at his back? If fortune had turned him into a field of clover, he would have laid down and rolled in it. The mere manual labour of writing would not have allowed his lassitude and love of ease to have taken the pen out of the inkhorn, unless the cravings of hunger had reminded him that he must fill the sheet before he saw the table-cloth. He might indeed have knocked down Osbourne for a blockhead, but he would not have knocked him down with a folio of his own writing. He would perhaps have been the dictator of a club, and wherever he sate down to conversation, there must have been that splash of strong, bold thought about him, that we might still have had a collectanea after his death; but of prose I guess not much, of works of labour none, of fancy perhaps something more, especially of poetry, which under favour I conceive was not his tower of strength. I think we should have had his Rasselas at all events, for he was likely enough to have written at Voltaire, and brought the question to the test, if infidelity is any aid to wit. An orator he must have been; not improbably a parliamentarian, and, if such, certainly an oppositionist, for he preferred to talk against the tide. He would indubitably have been no member of the Whig Club, no partisan of Wilkes, no friend of Hume, no believer in Macpherson; he would have put up prayers for early rising, and laid in bed all day, and with the most active resolutions possible been the most indolent mortal living. He was a good man by nature, a great man by genius; we are now to inquire what he was by compulsion.

Johnson's first style was naturally energetick, his middle style was turgid to a fault, his latter style was softened down and harmonized into periods, more tuneful and more intelligible. His execution was rapid, yet his mind was not easily provoked into exertion; the variety we find in his writings was not the variety of choice arising from the impulse of his proper genius, but tasks imposed upon him by the dealers in ink, and contracts on his part submitted to in satisfaction of the pressing calls of hungry want; for, painful as it is to relate, I have heard that illustrious scholar assert (and he never varied from the truth of fact) that he subsisted himself for a considerable space of time upon the scanty pittance of four-pence half-penny per day. How melancholy to reflect that his vast trunk and stimulating appetite were to be supported by what will barely feed the weaned infant! Less, much less, than master Betty has earned in one night, would have cheered the mighty mind, and maintained the athletick body of Samuel Johnson in comfort and abundance for a twelvemonth. Alas! I am not fit to to paint his character: nor is there need of it; *Etiam mortuus loquitur;* Every man, who can buy a book, has bought a *Boswell*; Johnson is known to all the reading world. I also knew him well, respected him highly, loved him sincerely: it was never my chance to see him in those moments of moroseness and ill humour, which are imputed to him, perhaps with truth, for who would slander him? But I am not warranted by any experience of those humours to speak of him otherwise than of a friend, who always met me with kindness, and from whom I never separated without regret. When I sought his company he had no capricious excuses for withholding it, but lent himself to every invitation with cordiality, and brought good humour with him, that gave life to the circle he was in. He presented himself always in his fashion of apparel; a brown coat with metal buttons, black waistcoat and worsted stockings, with a flowing bob wig, was the style of his wardrobe, but they were in perfectly good trim, and with the ladies, which he generally met, he had nothing of the slovenly philosopher about him; he fed heartily, but not voraciously, and was extremely courteous in his commendations of any dish that pleased his palate; he suffered his next neighbour to squeeze the China oranges into his wine glass after dinner, which else perchance had gone aside, and trickled into his shoes, for the good man had neither straight sight nor steady nerves.

At the tea-table he had considerable demands upon his favourite beverage, and I remember when Sir Joshua Reynolds, at my house, reminded him that he had drank eleven cups, he replied—"Sir, I did not count your glasses of wine, why should you number up my cups of tea?" And then laughing in perfect good humour, he added—"Sir, I should have released the lady from any further trouble, if it had not been for your remark; but you have reminded me that I want one of the dozen, and I must request Mrs. Cumberland to round up my number—" When he saw the readiness and complacency, with which my wife obeyed his call, he turned a kind and cheerful look upon her, and said—"Madam, I must tell you for your comfort, you have escaped much better than a certain lady did awhile ago, upon whose patience I intruded greatly, more than I have done on yours; but the lady asked me for no other purpose but to make a Zany of me, and set me gabbling to a parcel of people I knew nothing of; so, madam, I had my revenge of her: for I swallowed five and twenty cups of her tea, and did not treat her with as many words—" I can only say my wife would have made tea for him as long as the New River could have supplied her with water.

It was on such occasions he was to be seen in his happiest moments, when animated by the cheering attention of friends whom he liked, he would give full scope to those talents for narration, in which I verily think he was unrivalled, both in the brilliancy of his wit, the flow of his humour, and the energy of his language. Anecdotes of times past, scenes of his own life, and characters of humourists, enthusiasts, crack-brained projectors, and a variety of strange beings, that he had chanced upon, when detailed by him at length, and garnished with those episodical remarks, sometimes comick, sometimes grave, which he would throw in with infinite fertility of fancy, were a treat, which, though not always to be purchased by five and twenty cups of tea, I have often had the happiness to enjoy for less than half the number. He was easily led into topicks; it was not easy to turn him from them; but who would wish it? If a man wanted to shew himself off, by getting up and riding upon him, he was sure to run restive and kick him off: you might as safely have backed Bucephalus, before Alexander had lunged him. Neither did he always like to be over-fondled; when a certain gentleman out-acted his part in this way, he is said to have demanded of him—"What provokes your risibility, Sir? Have I said any thing that you understand?—Then I ask pardon of the rest of the company—" But this is Henderson's anecdote of him, and I won't swear he did not make it himself. The following apology, however, I myself drew from him, when speaking of his tour, I observed to him upon some passages as rather too sharp upon a country and people, who had entertained him so handsomely—"Do you think so, Cumbey?" he replied, "Then I give you leave to say, and you may quote me for it, that there are more gentlemen in Scotland than there are shoes."

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Oliver Goldsmith began at this time to write for the stage, and it is to be lamented that he did not begin at an earlier period of life to turn his genius to dramatick compositions, and much more to be lamented, that, after he had begun, the succeeding period of his life was so soon cut off. There is no doubt but his genius, when more familiarised to the business, would have inspired him to accomplish great things. His first comedy of *The Good-natured Man* was read and applauded in its manuscript by Edmund Burke, and the circle in which he then lived and moved: under such patronage it came with those testimonials to the director of Covent Garden theatre, as could not fail to open all the avenues to the stage, and bespeak all the favour and attention from the performers and the publick, that the applauding voice of him, whose applause was fame itself, could give it. This comedy has enough to justify the good opinion of its literary patron, and secure its author against any loss of reputation, for it has the stamp of a man of talents upon it, though its popularity with the audience did not quite keep pace with the expectations, that were grounded on the fiat it had antecedently been honoured with. It was a first effort however, and did not discourage its ingenious author from invoking his Muse a second time. It was now, whilst his labours were in projection, that I first met him at the British Coffee-house, as I have already related somewhat out of place. He dined with us as a visitor, introduced as I think by sir Joshua Reynolds, and we held a consultation upon the naming of his comedy, which some of the company had read, and which he detailed to the rest after his manner with a great deal of good humour. Somebody suggested—*She Stoops to Conquer*—and that title was agreed upon. When I perceived an embarrassment in his manner towards me, which I could readily account for, I lost no time to put him at his ease, and I flatter myself I was successful. As my heart was ever warm towards my contemporaries, I did not counterfeit, but really felt a cordial interest in his behalf, and I had soon the pleasure to perceive that he credited me for my sincerity—"You and I," said he, "have very different motives for resorting to the stage. I write for money, and care little about fame—." I was touched by this melancholy confession, and from that moment busied myself assiduously amongst all my connexions in his cause. The whole company pledged themselves to the support of the ingenuous poet, and faithfully kept their promise to him. In fact he needed all that could be done for him, as Mr. Colman, then manager of Covent Garden theatre, protested against the comedy, when as yet he had not struck upon a name for it. Johnson at length stood forth in all his terrours as champion for the piece, and backed by us his clients and retainers demanded a fair trial. Colman again protested, but, with that salvo for his own reputation, liberally lent his stage to one of the most eccentrick productions, that ever found its way to it, and *She Stoops to Conquer* was put into rehearsal.

We were not over-sanguine of success, but perfectly determined to struggle hard for our author: we accordingly assembled our strength at the Shakspeare Tavern in a considerable body for an early dinner, where Samuel Johnson took the chair at the head of a long table, and was the life and soul of the corps: the poet took post silently by his side with the Burkes, sir Joshua Reynolds, Fitzherbert, Caleb Whitefoord and a phalanx of North-British predetermined applauders, under the banner of Major Mills, all good men and true. Our illustrious president was in inimitable glee, and poor Goldsmith that day took all his raillery as patiently and complacently as my friend Boswell would have done any day, or every day of his life. In the mean time we did not forget our duty, and though we had a better comedy going, in which Johnson was chief actor, we betook ourselves in good time to our separate and allotted posts, and waited the awful drawing up of the curtain. As our stations were pre-concerted, so were our signals for plaudits arranged and determined upon in a manner, that gave every one his cue where to look for them, and how to follow them up.

We had amongst us a very worthy and efficient member, long since lost to his friends and the world at large, Adam Drummond, of amiable memory, who was gifted by nature with the most sonorous, and at the same time the most contagious, laugh, that ever echoed from the human lungs. The neighing of the horse of the son of Hystaspes was a whisper to it; the whole thunder of the theatre could not drown it. This kind and ingenuous friend fairly forewarned us that he knew no more when to give his fire, than the cannon did that was planted on a battery. He desired therefore to have a flapper at his elbow, and I had the honour to be deputed to that office. I planted him in an upper box, pretty nearly over the stage, in full view of the pit and galleries, and perfectly well situated to give the echo all its play through the hollows and recesses of the theatre. The success of our manœuvres was complete. All eyes were upon Johnson, who sate in a front row of a side box, and when he laughed every body thought themselves warranted to roar. In the mean time my friend followed signals with a rattle so irresistibly comick, that, when he had repeated it several times, the attention of the spectators was so engrossed by his person and performances, that the progress of the play seemed likely to become a secondary object, and I found it prudent to insinuate to him that he might halt his musick without any prejudice to the author; but alas, it was now too late to rein him in; he had laughed upon my signal where he found no joke, and now unluckily he fancied that he found a joke in almost every thing that was said; so that nothing in nature could be more mal-a-propos than some of his bursts every now and then were. These were dangerous moments, for the pit began to take umbrage; but we carried our play through, and triumphed not only over Colman's judgment, but our own.

As the life of poor Oliver Goldsmith was now fast approaching to its period, I conclude my account of him with gratitude for the epitaph he bestowed on me in his poem called *Retaliation*. It was upon a proposal started by Edmund Burke, that a party of friends who had dined together at sir Joshua Reynolds's and my house, should meet at the St. James's Coffee-House, which accordingly took place, and was occasionally repeated with much festivity and good fellowship. Dr. Bernard, Dean of Derry, a very amiable and old friend of mine, Dr. Douglas, since Bishop of Salisbury, Johnson, David Garrick, sir Joshua Reynolds, Oliver Goldsmith, Edmund and Richard Burke, Hickey, with two or three others constituted our party. At one of these meetings an idea was suggested of extemporary epitaphs upon the parties present; pen and ink were called for, and Garrick off hand wrote an epitaph with a good deal of humour upon poor Goldsmith, who was the first in jest, as he proved to be in reality, that we committed to the grave. The dean also gave him an epitaph, and sir Joshua illuminated the dean's verses with a sketch of his bust in pen and ink, inimitably caricatured. Neither Johnson nor Burke wrote any thing, and when I perceived Oliver was rather sore, and seemed to watch me with that kind of attention, which indicated his expectation of something in the same kind of burlesque as their's, I thought it time to press the joke no further, and wrote a few couplets at a side-table, which when I had finished and was called upon by the company to exhibit, Goldsmith with much agitation besought me to spare him, and I was about to tear them, when Johnson wrested them out of my hand, and in a loud voice read them at the table. I have now lost all recollection of them, and in fact they were little worth remembering; but as they were serious and complimentary, the effect they had upon Goldsmith was the more pleasing for being so entirely unexpected. The concluding line, which is the only one I can call to mind, was—

"All mourn the poet, I lament the man—."

This I recollect, because he repeated it several times, and seemed much gratified by it. At our next meeting he produced his epitaphs as they stand in the little posthumous poem above mentioned, and this was the last time he ever enjoyed the company of his friends.

As he had served up the company under the similitude of various sorts of meat, I had in the mean time figured them under that of liquors, which little poem I rather think was printed, but of this I am not sure. Goldsmith sickened and died, and we had one concluding meeting at my house, when it was decided to publish his Retaliation, and Johnson at the same time undertook to write an epitaph for our lamented friend, to whom we proposed to erect a a monument by subscription in Westminster-Abbey. This epitaph Johnson executed; but in the criticism, that was attempted against it, and in the Round-Robin signed at Mr. Beauclerc's house I had no part. I had no acquaintance with that gentleman, and was never in his house in my life.

Thus died Oliver Goldsmith in his chambers in the Temple at a period of life, when his genius was yet in its vigour, and fortune seemed disposed to smile upon him. I have heard Dr. Johnson relate with infinite humour the circumstance of his rescuing him from a ridiculous dilemma by the purchase-money of his Vicar of Wakefield, which he sold on his behalf to Dodsley, and, as I think, for the sum of ten pounds only. He had run up a debt with his landlady for board and lodging of some few pounds, and was at his wit's-end how to wipe off the score and keep a roof over his head, except by closing with a very staggering proposal on her part, and taking his creditor to wife, whose charms were very far from alluring, whilst her demands were extremely urgent. In this crisis of his fate he was found by Johnson in the act of meditating on the melancholy alternative before him. He shewed Johnson his manuscript of The Vicar of Wakefield, but seemed to be without any plan, or even hope, of raising money upon the disposal of it; when Johnson cast his eye upon it, he discovered something that gave him hope, and immediately took it to Dodsley, who paid down the price above-mentioned in ready-money, and added an eventual condition upon its future sale. Johnson described the precautions he took in concealing the amount of the sum he had in hand, which he prudently administered to him by a guinea at a time. In the event he paid off the landlady's score, and redeemed the person of his friend from her embraces. Goldsmith had the joy of finding his ingenious work succeed beyond his hopes, and from that time began to place a confidence in the resources of his talents, which thenceforward enabled him to keep his station in society, and cultivate the friendship of many eminent persons, who, whilst they smiled at his eccentricities, esteemed him for his genius and good qualities.

LITERATURE OF NORTH-CAROLINA.

Extract of a letter from a gentleman at Raleigh, N.C. to the Editors of the Anthology, Feb, 24.

AN account of the literature of this State might be comprized in a single page, and if the length of the account was regarded only in the proportion it bears to its interest, that page would be deemed tedious. There are only ten presses in the state, viz. two in Raleigh, two in Newbern, and one in each of the towns of Edenton, Halifax, Wilmington, Fayetteville, Salisbury, and Warrenton. From each of these presses issues a weekly paper, except the one in Salisbury, which is employed in printing handbills and pamphlets.

The papers are compilations, and the few books published are law books and the doggrel hymns of religious enthusiasts, and now and then a trash novel, which is commonly exchanged for other trash at the Literary Fair. I will give as complete a list as I am able of all the original works ever published in this State, with a brief character annexed.

1. Haywood's Reports of Cases, decided in the Superiour Courts of this State. A valuable book, published by Hodge & Boylan, 1800. N. B. A second volume is now in the press of Wm. Boylan.

2. A Journey to Lake Drummond, by Lemuel Sawyer. The events are without interest; the remarks puerile, and the language the most superlative bombast. Published eight or ten years ago.

3. Matilda Berkley, a novel. About upon a level with the Massachusetts novel of the Coquette, or Eliza Wharton. Published by J. Gales in 1804.

4. Taylor's Reports of Cases, adjudged in the Supreme Court of North Carolina. Of a moderate reputation. Marlin & Ogden. 1802.

5. History of the Ketukick Baptist Association, by Burkit and Read. Boylan. 1804.

6. A Masonick Ritual, published under the direction of the G. Lodge of North Carolina. The best of the kind. Sims. 1806.

7. Davies's Calvary. An excellent system. Hodge. 1798.

Cameron's Law Reports are in the press of J. Gales, of which there are favourable expectations.

These are the only publications, which I recollect, that have assumed the dignity of a volume. Of political and religious pamphlets we have *quantum sufficit*. The Rev. Joseph Caldwell, president of the University of N. Carolina, is the first scientifick and literary character in the State. He is now employed in writing a book on Mathematicks, intended as a school-book. Two sermons and an eulogium on Gen. Washington by him, which have been published separately in pamphlets, are handsome specimens of his abilities. I know of no other pamphlets that merit the respect of being named.

There is in this state one university and several academies, but none of them are supported by permanent funds. The university was founded about fourteen years ago, and received from the state a donation of all balances then due the state from revenue officers, all confiscated and escheat property, and a loan of $20,000. To a "huge mishapen pile," which is placed on a high rocky eminence twenty-eight miles to the westward of this, has been given the name of the College, and a donation from Gen. Thomas Person built a neat chapel. After considerable difficulties were experienced on account of incompetent teachers and insurrections among the students, the institution, under the direction of Mr. Caldwell, two professors, and two tutors, acquired regularity & consistency in its exercises, when our enlightened legislature discovered that education was inconsistent with republicanism; that it created an aristocracy of the learned, who would trample upon the rights and liberties of the ignorant, and that an equality of intellect was necessary to preserve the equality of rights. Influenced by these wise and patriotick considerations, the legislature gave to themselves again, what they had before given to the University. The institution now languishes; Mr. Caldwell's anti-republican love of literature, and not the emoluments of his office, induces him to preserve in existence by his influence even the shadow of a college. He is assisted by only one tutor; the funds do not permit the employment of more.

There is an excellent female academy, lately established by the Society of United Brethren (Moravians) at Salem. There are very good academies in Raleigh, Newbern, Fayetteville, Lewisburg, Warrenton, and two or three others. —A publick library has been founded in Newbern by a donation of $500 from Thomas Tomlinson. It is divided into eighty shares of $20 each; all the shares are filled, and the books purchased. It is contemplated to extend the number of shares to 120.

I know of no other publick libraries in the state, except one in Iredell county, established by a society called the Centre Benevolent Society, which has subsisted nearly twenty years.

SILVA, No. 17.

Purpureos metam flores, et flumine libam
Summa.

I FORESEE that in writing this Silva I must frequently recur to the loose papers on my table, or to what is as loosely floating in my memory; and I hope for pardon from every one, who has himself attempted to compose in the first month of summer. In looking over the "Anatomy of Melancholy," some time since, I found the following verses with the reference *Politianus de Rustico.*

> Felix ille animi, divisque simillimus ipsis,
> Quem non mordaci resplendens gloria fuco
> Solicitat; non fastosi mala gaudia luxus;
> Sed tacitos sinit ire dies et paupere cultu,
> Exigit innocuæ tranquilla silentia vitæ.

These verses are beautiful, but such uniform days would not constitute a happy life. It is strange, that any one, who knows himself to be human, should suppose, that he ever could, even when in health of mind, so divest himself of hope, as to live content; that tomorrow should be as to day. Common, quiet, and domestick pleasures do indeed constitute the most valuable part of our happiness; but to him alone are they delightful, who retires, to be conversant among them, from manly, and, if I may so speak, progressive exertions. The following verses from Southey describe a kind of seclusion far less pleasing in prospect, than that of Politiano, but perhaps more conformable to human passions.

> ——————Of the world
> Fatigued, and loathing at my fellow-men
> I shall be seen no more. 'There is a path,
> The eagle hath not marked it, the young wolf
> Knows not its hidden windings. I have trod
> That path and marked a melancholy cave,
> Where one, whose jaundiced soul abhors itself,
> May pamper him in complete wretchedness.
> There sepulchred, the ghost of what he was,
> Conrade shall dwell, and, in the languid hour,
> When the jarred senses sink to a sick calm,
> Shall mourn the waste of frenzy.

This passage is in the 4th Book of Joan of Arc. In writing the 3d, 4th, and 5th lines of it, Southey undoubtedly had in his memory the 7th and 8th verses of the 28th chapter of Job.

"There is a path, which no fowl knoweth, and which the vulture's eye hath not seen.

"The lion's whelps have not trodden it, nor the fierce lion passed by it."

THE necessity of the alternation of rest and labour to our happiness is expressed not inelegantly in the conclusion of the two following passages:

"Why, you have considered this matter very deeply," said Dr. Lyster, "but I must not have you give way to these serious reflections. Thought, after all, has a cruel spite against happiness. I would have you therefore keep as much as you conveniently can out of its company. Run about, and divert yourself; 'tis all you have for it. The true art of happiness, in this most whimsical world, seems to be nothing more than this: let those who have leisure find employment, and those who have business find leisure." *Cecilia.*

"We should have known ourselves to have been in the neighbourhood of some place larger than usual [Cologne] from the sight of two or three carriages on the road, nearly the first we had seen in Germany. There is, besides, some shew of labour in the adjoining villages; but the sallow countenances and miserable air of the people prove, that it is a labour not beneficial to them. The houses are only the desolated homes of these villagers, for there is not one of them that can be supposed to belong to any prosperous inhabitant of the neighbouring city, or to afford that coveted stillness, in which the active find an occasional reward, and the idle perpetual misery." *Mrs. Ratcliffe's Journey through Germany.*

'Οι πλειονες κακοι,

"All is little and low and mean among us," said Lord Bolingbroke, speaking of the state of England when he wrote. I will repeat his language, and apply it to my own country. All, which is most prominent and apparent among us....all, which would first present itself to the view of a stranger, is little and low and mean. "Nos hic in republica infirma, misera, commutabilique versamur." It is the temper of democracy to crush every thing elegant, and to batter down every thing noble. In all countries where it prevails, there is an *ostracism*, whether visible or not, at constant war with talents and learning and virtue, with all qualities which may excite envy or claim superiority. In its worst state, it is the dominion of brute force and idiot violence. For my part, I have no wish to take any share in such a miserable sovereignty. I am willing to submit to those, on whom nature and education have conferred the right to rule.

HUMAN NATURE.

Alas, poor human nature! is the most composing exclamation in the world. It diffuses among the species those feelings, which, if concentrated on an individual, would be anger or disgust, but which thus become little more than pity. When we meet with any thing harsh or unpleasant, it removes our consideration from the offence to the cause which produced it, and whether this be pride, or vanity, or ignorance, or ill-nature, we shall remember, that there are many men proud, and vain, and ignorant and ill-natured, and that it is hardly worth while to be exceedingly angry with one of these, because chance has unfortunately cast him in our way.

LUCRETIUS.

The beginning of the 4th book of Lucretius contains the common boast of poets that they are writing of "things unattempted yet," and his celebrated simile, by which he gives his reason for treating philosophical subjects in verse. The following is a translation, which was sometime since made of this passage.

LUCRETIUS, b. iv. c. 1.

Now through the Muſes' pathleſs plains I ſtray,
Where no preceding footſteps mark the way;
I drink delighted ſprings to me revealed,
I pluck delighted flowers before concealed;
Well pleaſed to weave a not ignoble crown,
And veil my brows with honours yet unknown.
For of high themes I ſing, and would unbind
Religion's fetters from the trembling mind;
Obſcurer ſubjects treat in lucid verſe,
And all around poetick charms diſperſe
With wiſe deſign; for as phyſicians uſe,
When they harſh wormwood in a cup infuſe
For ſome ſick child who loaths the med'cine much,
With yellow honey all the brim to touch,
And thus the unthinking boy allured to taſte,
Drains down the bitter juice with careleſs haſte;
By this kind art not cheated, though deceived,
And thus from weakneſs and from pain relieved.
So I, becauſe to moſt my ſubject ſeems
But harſh, and all the vulgar dread my themes,
To woo the taſte, Pierian ſweets diſperſe,
And grace my reaſonings with the charms of verſe.

The 9th and 10th lines are not, I believe, a correct translation, but I have not the original, and cannot determine. The sense I think is preserved, but not the expression. The 7th and 8th lines of the translation appear so harsh, that I will observe, that there are not many men, I suppose, who have learning enough to read and taste enough to be pleased with the poetry of Lucretius, who are not disgusted with his philosophy.

SECUNDUS.

The following are the original and a translation of the First Basium of Secundus, which treats of the origin of kisses. The classical reader will immediately recollect, that it is founded on the relation in the first book of the Æneid, of Venus removing her grandson Ascanius from the court of Dido. "At Venus Ascanio," &c. l. 694.

BASIUM I.

Cum Venus Aſcanium ſuper alta Cythera tuliſſet;
Sopitum teneris impoſuit violis;
Albarum nimbos circumfudit roſarum,
Et totum liquido ſparſit odore locum.
Mox veteres animo revocavit Adonidis igneis,
Notus et irrepſit ima per oſſa calor.
O quoties voluit circundare colla nepotis?
O, quoties dixit! Talis Adonis erat.
Sed placidum pueri metuens turbare quietem,
Fixit vicinis Baſia mille roſas.
Ecce calent illæ; cupidæ per ora Diones
Aura, ſuſuranti flamine, lenta ſubit.
Quotquot roſas tetigit, tot Baſia nata repente
Gaudia reddebant multiplicata Deæ.
At Cytherea natans per nubila Cygnis,
Ingentis terræ coepit obire globum;
Triptolemiq: modo foecundis oſcula glebis
Sparſit, et ignotos ter dedit ore ſonos.
Inde ſeges felix nata eſt mortalibus ægris
Inde medela meis unica nata malis.
Salvete æternum! miſeræ moderamina flammæ,
Humida de gelidis Baſia nata roſis.
En ego ſum, veſtri quo vate canentur honores,
Nota Meduſæi dum juga montis erunt.
Et memor Æneadum, ſtirpiſque diſertus amatæ
Mollia Romulidum verba loquitur amor.

TRANSLATION.

When Venus bore with fond delight
Aſcanius to Cythera's height,
On violets riſing to be preſt
She laid the blooming boy to reſt;
Clouds of white roſes o'er him ſpread,
And liquid fragrance round him ſhed.
Then as ſhe gazed, a well known flame
With gentle tremors thrilled her frame,
The boy had all Adonis' charms, .
How oft ſhe longed to claſp her arms
Around his neck; how oft ſhe ſaid,
Adonis once ſuch charms diſplayed.
But fearful to diſturb his reſt,
She on each roſe a kiſs impreſt.
And lo! they warm; with murmurs weak
A ſoft air wantons o'er her cheek.
Each roſe ſhe touched, a new-born kiſs
Glowed on her lips with novel bliſs.
Now floating where the thin clouds ſpread,
Dione's car her white ſwans led,
O'er the wide earth ſhe ſlowly paſt,
And on its fertile boſom caſt
Full many a kiſs; her warm lips move,
Thrice uttering unknown ſounds of love.
And hence a fruitful harveſt roſe
For weary man oppreſt with woes.
Ye only med'cines of my grief,
That ſometimes give a ſhort relief,
Moiſt kiſſes from cold roſes ſprung,
Your poet's verſe ſhall long be ſung;
Long as the Muſes' mount remains,
Or love well learned in Latian ſtrains,
And pleaſed the Ænean race to own,
Speaks the ſoft words to Romans known.

SANS SOUCI.

Stealing and giving sweets. SHAKESP.

IN the year 1784 Dr. Hunter first appeared before the world, in the character of an author, by the publication of two volumes of his Sacred Biography. The plan of this work he had conceived, we are told, when young; and so favourable was the reception it experienced, as to encourage him to extend it to seven volumes. Previous, however, to the publication of the latter part of this work, accident introduced him to an acquaintance with a French edition of Lavater's Physiognomy. 'Whatever opinions Dr. Hunter embraced, he embraced warmly.' He was struck with the novelty and originality of thought displayed in the essays of that writer; he became an enthusiast in the cause; and determined to translate them into English. The same ardent spirit which had induced Dr. H. to adopt this scheme, prompted him to make a journey to Zurich, for the sake of a personal interview with Lavater. In August 1787 he accordingly repaired thither. It might have been reasonably expected, that a proceeding so romantick would have been considered by Lavater as no common compliment to him. But he did not receive Dr. Hunter with that frankness or generosity, to which so distinguished a mark of respect seemed fairly to entitle him. Lavater was jealous of Dr. H.'s undertaking, and thought the English translation likely to injure the sale of the French edition, in which he was interested. By degrees, however, his scruples were overcome, and he finally opened himself to the Doctor without reserve. In a letter, written by the latter gentleman from Bern, a portrait of Lavater is drawn, and a descripttion of their last interview is given. This we consider as a curious literary morsel, and we shall make no apology for transcribing it into the Anthology.

"I was detained the whole morning by that strange, wild, eccentrick, Lavater, in various conversations. When once he is set agoing, there is no such thing as stopping him, till he *run* himself out of breath. He starts from subject to subject, flies from book to book, from picture to picture; measures your nose, your eye, your mouth, with a pair of compasses; pours forth a torrent of physiognomy upon you; drags you, for a proof of his dogma, to a dozen of closets, and unfolds ten thousand drawings; but will not let you open your lips to propose a difficulty: crams a solution down your throat, before you have uttered half a syllable of your objection. He is meagre as the picture of famine; his nose and chin almost meet. I read him in my turn, and found little difficulty in discovering, amidst great genius, unaffected piety, unbounded benevolence, and moderate learning; much caprice and unsteadiness; a mind at once aspiring by nature, and grovelling through necessity; an endless turn to speculation and project:—in a word, a clever, flighty, good-natured necessitous man. He did not conceal his dread of my English translation, as he thinks is will materially affect the sale of the third and fourth volumes of his French edition, one of which is actually published, and the other in the press."

POETRY.

SMITH's POEM

TO THE MEMORY OF MR. JOHN PHILIPS.

In 1709, a year after the exhibition of *Phædra*, died John Philips, the friend and fellow-collegian of Smith, who, on that occaſion, wrote a poem, which juſtice muſt place among the beſt elegies which our language can ſhew, an elegant mixture of fondneſs and admiration, of dignity and ſoftneſs. There are ſome paſſages too ludicrous; but every human performance has its faults.

JOHNSON.

SINCE our Iſis ſilently deplores
The bard who ſpread her fame to diſtant ſhores;
Since nobler pens their mournful lays ſuſpend,
My honeſt zeal, if not my verſe, commend,
Forgive the poet, and approve the friend.
Your care had long his fleeting life reſtrain'd,
One table fed you, and one bed contain'd;
For his dear ſake long reſtleſs nights you bore,
While rattling coughs his heaving veſſels tore,
Much was his pain, but your affliction more.
Oh! had no ſummons from the noiſy gown
Call'd thee, unwilling, to the nauſeous town,
Thy love had o'er the dull diſeaſe prevail'd,
Thy mirth had cur'd where baffled phyſick fail'd;
But ſince the will of heaven his fate decreed,
To thy kind care my worthleſs lines ſucceed;
Fruitleſs our hopes, though pious our eſſays,
Yours to preſerve a friend, and mine to praiſe.

Oh! might I paint him in Miltonian verſe,
With ſtrains like thoſe he ſung on Glo'ſter's herſe;
But with the meaner tribe I'm forc'd to chime,
And, wanting ſtrength to riſe, deſcend to rhyme.

With other fire his glorious Blenheim ſhines,
And all the battle thunders in his lines;
His nervous verſe great Boileau's ſtrength tranſcends,
And France to Philips, as to Churchill, bends.

Oh! various bard, you all our powers control,
You now diſturb, and now divert the ſoul:
Milton and Butler in thy muſe combine,
Above the laſt thy manly beauties ſhine;
For as I've ſeen, when rival wits contend,
One gayly charge, one gravely wiſe defend;
This on quick turns and points in vain relies,
This with a look demure, and ſteady eyes,
With dry rebukes, or ſneering praiſe, replies.
So thy grave lines extort a juſter ſmile,
Reach Butler's fancy, but ſurpaſs his ſtyle;
He ſpeaks Scarron's low phraſe in humble ſtrains,
In thee the ſolemn air of great Cervantes reigns.

What ſounding lines his abject themes expreſs!
What ſhining words the pompous Shilling dreſs!
There, there my cell, immortal made, outvies
The frailer piles which o'er its ruins riſe.
In her beſt light the comick muſe appears,
When ſhe, with borrow'd pride, the buſkin wears.

So when nurſe Nokes, to act young Ammon tries,
With ſhambling legs, long chin, and fooliſh eyes;
With dangling hands he ſtrokes th'Imperial robe,
And, with a cuckold's air, commands the globe;
The pomp and ſound the whole buffoon diſplay'd,
And Ammon's ſon more mirth than Gomez made.

Forgive, dear ſhade, the ſcene my folly draws,
Thy ſtrains divert the grief thy aſhes cauſe:
When Orpheus ſings, the ghoſts no more complain,
But, in his lulling muſick, loſe their pain:
So charm the ſallies of thy Georgick muſe,
So calm our ſorrows, and our joys infuſe;
Here rural notes a gentle mirth inſpire,
Here lofty lines the kindling reader fire,
Like that fair tree you praiſe, the poem charms,
Cools like the fruit, or like the juice it warms.

Bleſt clime, which Vaga's fruitful ſtreams improve,
Etruria's envy, and her Coſmo's love;
Redſtreak he quaffs beneath the Chiant vine,
Gives Tuſcan yearly for thy Scudmore's wine,
And ev'n his Taſſo would exchange for thine.
Riſe, riſe, Roſcommon, ſee the Blenheim muſe
The dull conſtraint of monkiſh rhyme refuſe;
See, o'er the Alps his towering pinions ſoar,
Where never Engliſh poet reach'd before:
See mighty Coſmo's counſellor and friend,
By turns on Coſmo and the bard attend;
Rich in the coins and buſts of ancient Rome,
In him he brings a nobler treaſure home;
In them he views her gods, and domes deſign'd,
In him the ſoul of Rome, and Virgil's mighty mind:
To him for eaſe retires from toils of ſtate,
Not half ſo proud to govern, as tranſlate.

Our Spenſer, firſt by Piſan poets taught,
To us their tales, their ſtyle, and numbers brought.
To follow ours, now Tuſcan bards deſcend,
From Philips borrow, though to Spenſer lend,
Like Philips too the yoke of rhyme diſdain;
They firſt on Engliſh bards impos'd the chain,
Firſt by an Engliſh bard from rhyme their freedom gain.

Tyrannick rhyme that cramps to equal chime
The gay, the ſoft, the florid, and ſublime;

Some ſay this chain the doubtful ſenſe decides,
Confines the fancy, and the judgment guides;
I'm ſure in needleſs bonds it poets ties,
Procruſtes-like, the ax or wheel applies,
To lop the mangled ſenſe, or ſtretch it into ſize:
At beſt a crutch, that lifts the weak along,
Supports the feeble, but retards the ſtrong;
And the chance thoughts, when goveru'd by the
cloſe,
Oft riſe to fuſtian, or deſcend to proſe.
Your judgment, Philips, rul'd with ſteady ſway,
You us'd no curbing rhyme, the Muſe to ſtay,
To ſtop her fury, or direct her way.
Thee on the wing thy uncheck'd vigour bore,
To wanton freely, or ſecurely ſoar.

So the ſtretch'd cord the ſhackle-dancer tries,
As prone to fall, as impotent to riſe;
When freed he moves, the ſturdy cable bends,
He mounts with pleaſure, and ſecure deſcends;
Now dropping ſeems to ſtrike the diſtant ground,
Now high in air his quivering feet rebound.

Rail on, ye triflers, who to Will's repair
For new lampoons, freſh cant, or modiſh air;
Rail on at Milton's ſon, who wiſely bold
Rejects new phraſes, and reſumes the old:
Thus Chaucer lives in younger Spenſer's ſtrains,
In Maro's page reviving Ennius reigns;
The ancient words the majeſty complete,
And make the poem venerably great:
So when the queen in royal habit's dreſt,
Old myſtick emblems grace th' imperial veſt,
And in Eliza's robes all Anna ſtands confeſt.

A haughty bard, to fame by volumes rais'd,
At Dick's, and Batſon's, and through Smithfield,
prais'd,
Cries out aloud—Bold Oxford bard, forbear
With rugged numbers to torment my ear;
Yet not like thee the heavy critick ſoars,
But paints in fuſtian, or in turn deplores;
With Bunyan's ſtyle prophanes heroick ſongs,
To the tenth page lean homilies prolongs;
For far-fetch'd rhymes makes puzzled angels
ſtrain,
And in low proſe dull Lucifer complain;
His envious Muſe, by native dulneſs curſt,
Damns the beſt poems, and contrives the worſt.

Beyond his praiſe or blame thy works prevail
Complete where Dryden and thy Milton fail;
Great Milton's wing on lower themes ſubſides,
And Dryden oft in rhyme his weakneſs hides;
You ne'er with jingling words deceive the ear,
And yet, on humble ſubjects, great appear.
Thrice happy youth, whom noble Iſis crowns!
Whom Blackmore cenſures, and Godolphin owns:
So on the tuneful Margarita's tongue
The liſtening nymphs and raviſh'd heroes hung:
But cits and fops the heaven-born muſick blame,
And bawl, and hiſs, and damn her into fame;
Like her ſweet voice, is thy harmonious ſong,
As high, as ſweet, as eaſy, and as ſtrong.

Oh! had relenting heaven prolong'd his days,
The towering bard had ſung in nobler lays,
How the laſt trumpet wakes the lazy dead,
How ſaints aloft the croſs triumphant ſpread:
How opening heavens their happy regions ſhow;
And yawning gulphs with flaming vengeance glow;
And ſaints rejoice above, and ſinners howl below:
Well might he ſing the day he could not fear,
And paint the glories he was ſure to wear.

Oh beſt of friends, will ne'er the ſilent urn
To our juſt vows the hapleſs youth return?
Muſt he no more divert the tedious day?
Nor ſparkling thoughts in antique words convey?
No more to harmleſs irony deſcend,
To noiſy fools a grave attention lend,
Nor merry tales with learn'd quotations blend?
No more in falſe pathetick phraſe complain
Of Delia's wit, her charms, and her diſdain?
Who now ſhall godlike Anna's fame diffuſe?
Muſt ſhe, when moſt ſhe merits, want a muſe?
Who now our Twyſden's glorious fate ſhall tell;
How lov'd he liv'd, and how deplor'd he fell?
How, while the troubled elements around,
Earth, water, air, the ſtunning din reſound;
Through ſtreams of ſmoke, and adverſe fire, he
rides,
While every ſhot is level'd at his ſides?
How, while the fainting Dutch remotely fire,
And the fam'd Eugene's iron troops retire,
In the firſt front, amidſt a ſlaughter'd pile,
High on the mound he dy'd near great Argyle.

Whom ſhall I find unbiaſs'd in diſpute,
Eager to learn, unwilling to confute?
To whom the labours of my ſoul diſcloſe,
Reveal my pleaſure, or diſcharge my woes?
Oh! in that heavenly youth for ever ends
The beſt of ſons, of brothers, and of friends.
He ſacred Friendſhip's ſtricteſt laws obey'd,
Yet more by Conſcience than by Friendſhip ſway'd;
Againſt himſelf his gratitude maintain'd,
By favours paſt, not future proſpects gain'd:
Not nicely chooſing, though by all deſir'd,
Though learn'd, not vain; and humble, though
admir'd:
Candid to all, but to himſelf ſevere,
In humour pliant, as in life auſtere.
A wiſe content his even ſoul ſecur'd,
By want not ſhaken, nor by wealth allur'd.
To all ſincere, though earneſt to commend,
Could praiſe a rival, or condemn a friend.
To him old Greece and Rome were fully known,
Their tongues, their ſpirits, and their ſtyles, his
own:
Pleas'd the leaſt ſteps of famous men to view,
Our authors' works, and lives, and ſouls, he knew;
Paid to the learn'd and great the ſame eſteem,
The one his pattern, and the one his theme:
With equal judgment his capacious mind
Warm Pindar's rage, and Euclid's reaſon join'd.
Judicious phyſick's noble art to gain
All drugs and plants explor'd, alas, in vain!
The drugs and plants their drooping maſter fail'd;
Nor goodneſs now, nor learning aught avail'd!

Yet to the bard his Churchill's ſoul they gave,
And made him ſcorn the life they could not ſave:

Elſe could he bear unmov'd, the fatal gueſt,
The weight that all his fainting limbs oppreſt,
The coughs that ſtruggled from his weary breaſt?
Could he unmov'd approaching death ſuſtain?
Its ſlow advances, and its racking pain?
Could he ſerene his weeping friends ſurvey,
In his laſt hours his eaſy wit diſplay,
Like the rich fruit he ſings, delicious in decay?

Once on thy friends look down, lamented ſhade,
And view the honours to thy aſhes paid;
Some thy lov'd duſt in Parian ſtones enſhrine,
Others immortal epitaphs deſign,
With wit, and ſtrength, that only yields to thine:
Ev'n I, though ſlow to touch the painful ſtring,
Awake from ſlumber, and attempt to ſing.
Thee, Philips, thee deſpairing Vaga mourns,
And gentle Iſis ſoft complaints returns;
Dormer laments amidſt the war's alarms,
And Cecil weeps in beauteous Tufton's arms:
Thee, on the Po, kind Somerſet deplores,
And even that charming ſcene his grief reſtores:
He to thy loſs each mournful air applies,
Mindful of thee on huge Taburnus lies,
But moſt at Virgil's tomb his ſwelling ſorrows
riſe.

But you, his darling friends, lament no more,
Diſplay his fame, and not his fate deplore;
And let no tears from erring pity flow,
For one that's bleſt above, immortaliz'd below.

BAUCIS AND PHILEMON.

On the ever-lamented loſs of the two Yew Trees, in the pariſh of Chilthorne, Somerſet, 1708. Imitated from the eighth book of Ovid.

BY SWIFT.

IN ancient times, as ſtory tells,
The ſaints would often leave their cells,
And ſtroll about, but hide their quality,
To try good people's hoſpitality.

It happen'd on a winter-night,
As authors of the legend write,
Two brother-hermits, ſaints by trade,
Taking their *tour* in maſquerade,
Diſguis'd in tatter'd habits, went
To a ſmall village down in Kent;
Where, in the ſtrollers' canting ſtrain,
They begg'd from door to door in vain,
Tried every tone might pity win;
But not a ſoul would let them in.

Our wandering ſaints, in woful ſtate,
Treated at this ungodly rate,
Having through all the village paſt,
To a ſmall cottage came at laſt!
Where dwelt a good old honeſt ye'man,
Called in the neighbourhood Philemon;
Who kindly did theſe ſaints invite
In his poor hut to paſs the night;
And then the hoſpitable fire
Bid goody Baucis mend the fire;
While he from out the chimney took
A flitch of bacon off the hook,
And freely from the fatteſt ſide
Cut out large ſlices to be fry'd;
Then ſtep'd aſide to fetch them drink,
Fill'd a large jug up to the brink,
And ſaw it fairly twice go round;
Yet (what is wonderful!) they found
'Twas ſtill repleniſh'd to the top,
As if they ne'er had touch'd a drop.
The good old couple were amaz'd,
And often on each other gaz'd;
For both were frighten'd to the heart,
And juſt began to cry,—What ar't!
Then ſoftly turn'd aſide to view
Whether the lights were burning blue.
The gentle *pilgrims*, ſoon aware on't,
Told them their calling, and their errand:
Good folks, you need not be afraid,
We are but *ſaints*, the hermits ſaid;
No hurt ſhall come to you or yours:
But for that pack of churliſh boors,
Not fit to live on Chriſtian ground,
They and their houſes ſhall be drown'd;
Whilſt you ſhall ſee your cottage riſe,
And grow a church before your eyes.
They ſcarce had ſpoke, when fair and
ſoft
The roof began to mount aloft;
Aloft roſe every beam and rafter;
The heavy wall climbed ſlowly after.
The chimney widen'd, and grew
higher,
Became a ſteeple with a ſpire.
The kettle to the top was hoiſt,
And there ſtood faſtened to a joiſt,
But with the upſide down, to ſhow
Its inclination for below:
In vain; for a ſuperiour force,
Apply'd at bottom, ſtops its courſe:

Doom'd ever in ſuſpence to dwell,
'Tis now no kettle, but a bell.
A wooden jack, which had almoſt
Loſt by diſuſe the art to roaſt,
A ſudden alteration feels,
Increaſed by new inteſtine wheels;
And, what exalts the wonder more,
The number made the motion ſlower:
The flier, though 't had leaden feet,
Turn'd round ſo quick, you ſcarce could ſee't;
But ſlacken'd by ſome ſecret power,
Now hardly moves an inch an hour.
The jack and chimney, near ally'd,
Had never left each other's ſide:
The chimney to a ſteeple grown,
The jack would not be left alone;
But, up againſt the ſteeple rear'd,
Became a clock and ſtill adher'd;
And ſtill its love to houſehold cares,
By a ſhrill voice at noon declares,
Warning the cook-maid not to burn
That roaſt-meat which it cannot turn.
The groaning-chair began to crawl,
Like a huge ſnail, along the wall;
There ſtuck aloft in publick view,
And with ſmall change a pulpit grew.
The porringers, that in a row
Hung high, and made a glittering ſhow,
To a leſs noble ſubſtance chang'd,
Were now but leathern buckets rang'd.
The ballads, paſted on the wall,
Of Joan of France, and Engliſh Moll,
Fair Roſamond, and Robin Hood,
The Little Children in the Wood,
Now ſeemed to look abundance better,
Improv'd in picture, ſize, and letter;
And, high in order plac'd, deſcribe
The heraldry of every tribe.
A bedſtead of the antique mode,
Compact of timber many a load,
Such as our anceſtors did uſe,
Was metamorphoſ'd into pews;
Which ſtill their ancient nature keep
By lodging folks diſpoſed to ſleep.

The cottage by ſuch feats as theſe
Grown to a church by juſt degrees,
The hermits then deſir'd their hoſt
To aſk for what he fancy'd moſt.
Philemon, having paus'd a while,
Return'd them thanks in homely ſtyle:
Then ſaid, My houſe is grown ſo fine,
Methinks I ſtill would call it mine;
I 'm old, and fain would live at eaſe;
Make me the *parſon* if you pleaſe.
He ſpoke and preſently he feels
His grazier's coat fall down his heels:
He ſees, yet hardly can believe,
About each arm a pudding-ſleeve;
His waiſtcoat to a caſſock grew,
And both aſſum'd a ſable hue;
But, being old, continued juſt
As thread-bare, and as full of duſt.
His talk was now of *tithes* and *dues*:
He ſmok'd his pipe, and read the news:
Knew how to preach old ſermons next,
Vamp'd in the preface and the text;
At chriſtenings well could act his part,
And had the ſervice all by heart;
Wiſh'd women might have children faſt,
And thought whoſe ſow had farrow'd laſt;
Againſt *diſſenters* would repine,
And ſtood up firm for *right divine;*
Found his head fill'd with many a ſyſtem:
But claſſic authors,—he ne'er miſs'd 'em.

Thus having furbiſh'd up a parſon,
Dame Baucis next they play'd their farce on.
Inſtead of home-ſpun coifs, were ſeen
Good pinners edg'd with *colberteen;*
Her petticoat, tranſform'd apace,
Became black ſattin flounc'd with lace.
Plain *Goody* would no longer down;
'Twas *Madam*, in her grogram gown.
Philemon was in great ſurprize,
And hardly could believe his eyes,
Amaz'd to ſee her look ſo prim;
And ſhe admir'd as much at him.

Thus happy in their change of life
Were ſeveral years this man and wife;
When on a day, which prov'd their laſt,
Diſcourſing o'er old ſtories paſt,
They went by chance, amidſt their talk,
To the church-yard to take a walk;
When Baucis haſtily cry'd out,
My dear, I ſee your forehead ſprout!

Sprout ! quoth the man ; what's this you tell us ?
I hope you don't believe me jealous !
But yet, methinks, I feel it true ;
And really yours is budding too—
Nay,—now I cannot ſtir my foot ;
It feels as if 'twere taking root.
Deſcription would but tire my Muſe ;
In ſhort, they both were turn'd to *yews.*
Old Goodman Dobſon of the green
Remembers, he the trees has ſeen ;
He'll talk of them from noon till night
And goes with folks to ſhew the ſight ;
On Sundays, after evening-prayer,
He gathers all the pariſh there ;
Points out the place of either *yew* ;
Here Baucis, there Philemon, grew :
Till once a parſon of our town,
To mend his barn, cut Baucis down ;
At which 'tis hard to be believ'd
How much the other tree was griev'd,
Grew ſcrubbed, dy'd a top, was ſtunted;
So the next parſon ſtubb'd and burnt it.

THE JACKDAW.

A Fable.

BY COWPER.

1

THERE is a bird, who, by his coat,
And by the hoarseness of his note,
Might be suppos'd a crow ;
A great frequenter of the church,
Where, bishop-like, he finds a perch
And dormitory too.

2

Above the steeple shines a plate,
That turns and turns, to indicate
From what point blows the weather.
Look up—your brains begin to swim,
'Tis in the clouds—that pleases him,
He chooses it the rather.

3

Fond of the speculative height,
Thither he wings his airy flight,
And thence securely sees
The bustle and the raree-show
That occupy mankind below,
Secure, and at his ease.

4

You think, no doubt, he sits and muses
On future broken bones and bruises,
If he should chance to fall.
No ; not a single thought like that
Employs his philosophick pate,
Or troubles it at all.

5

He sees, that this great roundabout—
The world with all its motley rout,
Church, army, physick, law,
Its customs, and its bus'nesses
Is no concern at all of his,
And says—what says he ?—caw.

6

Thrice happy bird ! I too have seen
Much of the vanities of men :
And, sick of having seen 'em,
Would cheerfully these limbs resign
For such a pair of wings as thine,
And such a head between 'em.

PARALLELS

........The flowery lap
Of ſome irriguous valley ſpread her ſtore,
Flowers of all hue and without thorn the roſe.
Another ſide, umbrageous grots and caves,
Of cool receſs, o'er which the mantling vine
Lays forth her purple grape, and gently creeps
Luxuriant : meanwhile murmuring waters fall
Down the ſlope hills, diſperſed, or in a lake,
That to the fringed bank with myrtle crowned
Her chryſtal mirror holds, unite their ſtreams.
The birds their quire apply ; airs, vernal airs,

Breathing the ſmell of field and grove, attune
The trembling leaves...... MILTON.

....

And broad-leaved Zennars in long colonades
O'er-arched delightful walks,
Where round their trunks the thouſand-tendriled vine
Wound up and hung the bows with greener wreaths,
And cluſters not their own.
Wearied with endleſs beauty did his eyes
Return for reſt? Beſide him teems the earth
With tulips, like the ruddy evening ſtreaked,
And here the lily hangs her head of ſnow,
And here amid her ſable cup
Shines the red eye-ſpot, like one brighteſt ſtar,
The ſolitary twinkler of the night,
And here the roſe expands
Her paradiſe of leaves.

Then on his ear what ſounds
Of harmony aroſe!
Far muſick and the diſtance-mellowed ſong
From bowers of merriment;
The water-fall remote;
The murmuring of the leafy groves;
The ſingle nightingale,
Perch'd in the roſier by, ſo richly toned,
That never from that moſt melodious bird,
Singing a love-ſong to his brooding mate,
Did Thracian ſhepherd by the grave
Of Orpheus hear a ſweeter ſong;
Though there the ſpirit of the ſepulchre
All his own power infuſe, to ſwell
The incenſe that he loves.
SOUTHEY.

—

..... Pilaſters round
Were ſet, and Doric pillars overlaid
With golden architrave; nor did there want
Cornice or frieze, with boſſy ſculptures graven;
The roof was fretted gold.—The aſcending pile
Stood fixed her ſtately height; and ſtraight the doors,
Opening their brazen folds, diſcover wide
Within her ample ſpaces o'er the ſmooth
And level pavement. From the arched roof,
Pendent by ſubtle magick, many a row
Of ſtarry lamps and blazing creſſets, fed
With Naphtha and Aſphaltus, yielded light
As from a ſky.... MILTON.

....

There emerald columns o'er the marble court
Fling their green rays, as when amid a ſhower
The ſun ſhines lovelieſt on the vernal corn.
Here Shedad bade the ſapphire floor be laid,
As though with feet divine
To trample azure light,
Like the blue pavement of the firmament.
Here ſelf-ſuſpended hangs in air,
As its pure ſubſtance loathed material touch,
The living carbuncle;
Sun of the lofty dome,
Darkneſs has no dominion o'er its beams;
Intenſe it glows, an ever-flowing tide
Of glory, like the day-flood in its ſource.
SOUTHEY.

—

He forthwith from the glittering ſtaff unfurl'd
The imperial enſign, which, full high advanced,
Shone like a meteor ſtreaming to the wind,
With gems and golden luſtre rich emblazed,
Seraphick arms and trophies.
MILTON.

....

Lo, where the holy banner waved aloft,
The lambent lightnings played. Irradiate round,
As with a blaze of glory, o'er the field
It ſtreamed miraculous ſplendour.
SOUTHEY.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For JULY, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 29.

New-York Term Reports of cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of that state. By George Caines, counsellor at law, and reporter to the state. In three volumes; from May, 1803, *to Nov.* 1805. New-York, printed for, and sold by Isaac Riley & Co.

We congratulate the profession upon the appearance of these volumes, as we have no doubt that their utility will be generally acknowledged. The reporter, in his preface, makes some pertinent observations upon the importance of his office, the propriety of which will be fully felt. We were here sorry to observe a violation of grammar, a blot which does not often stain the pages of the reporter. Preface, page 5. "And the bar *has* generously and frankly afforded *their* cases," &c. Upon perusing these volumes, every reader, who has any pretensions to the character of a lawyer, will acknowledge the superiority of the system of jurisprudence in New-York, to most others in the United States. We speak of the English *nisi prius system.* When we perceive how favourable it is at once to the utmost deliberation, and to the greatest economy and expedition, it is difficult to tell why the good people of our country should so long oppose its introduction. Every lawyer knows, that in a science so technical as his; a science composed very much of rules, made and adhered to more from the necessity of having a rule, than from any intrinsick propriety in the rule itself; a science, which embraces almost the whole extent of human action, there can be neither accuracy nor safety in the decisions of a judge, who has not much time for deliberation, and all the lights which books can give. The maxim of a lawyer should be, *via trita, via tuta.* The aids of genius alone, in such a science, will not suffice, and the man who follows them will soon find himself bewildered and lost. For the trial of a simple or a complicated question of fact, (no other question should ever be definitively settled upon a trial) our own experience has shown, that one judge is more fit than half a dozen, or than a Roman court of judices selecti would be, composed even of such men as Hortensius and Cicero.

In reading the reports of American decisions, we too often have to lament frequent differences in the opinions of the judges. In these volumes we find the same cause for regret. In a country like ours, we know of no remedy for the evil. In some states the office of a judge is elective, in all it is considered, more or less, as a round on the ladder of power, from which the judge can exhibit himself most effectually for the admiration and approbation of the citizens. Hence the frequent changes in our courts; so great are they, that no man, for ten years together, can know the court from any personal identity.

As to the general execution of these reports, the cases are stated with brevity, with method, and perspicuity. The arguments of counsel are given much in the manner of the modern English reporters. It may be thought, that many of them are given more diffusely than was necessary. Still, when the lawyer considers, how much the frequent citing of cases facilitates his labours, and refreshes his memory, he will have nothing to regret on this head. The mere name of a case has often saved much precious time, and many a laborious search. For these reasons every lawyer will be indebted to the reporter for his notes and marginal references, in which many authorities, illustrating the point in controversy, are cited. In cases, where the authority only is cited by the counsel, the name of the case is mentioned in the margin. Every professional man, who knows how mechanical is his science, and how important to the memory are such aids, will feel the full value of them. From this general approbation, we are sorry to make any deductions. In some instances there is failure of attention, and in some a want of accuracy. It is at least the duty of a reporter to exhibit the counsel in a decent garb, however slovenly they may themselves consent to appear. A filthy, or a tattered dress is neither decorous nor dignified before the most respectable tribunal in the state. If the reporter had bestowed a little more labour upon his reports, there would not be found such instances of awkwardness, inaccuracy, and bad grammar as the following, which are among the very many we have noticed. Vol. I. page 398. " neither party *have* a right" —" the sale of the premises was merely hearsay." In addition to this, we observe, that some of the marginal statements are incorrect, and some unintelligible. Vol. I. page 450, Given *vs.* Driggs, the marginal statement is wholly unintelligible. Vol. II. 188. Frost et al. *vs.* Raymond, from which it would seem, that it was determined by the court, that the word " *dede*," in a conveyance derived from the statute of uses, contained an implied covenant. The reporter tells us in his preface, that in most cases he received the written opinions of the court; of course he is not responsible for the defects of their manner or matter. It is impossible not to perceive, that they might, in many instances, be curtailed, to the great advantage of many a weary eye and many an aching head. The style of the opinions is generally correct, and lawyer-like. In America, however, every man, from the lowest to the highest, seems to consider, that, with the charter of his freedom, he has derived an exemption from all the ancient penalties, which were inflicted upon the slovenly murderers of his majesty's English. That the learned judges in the state of New-York are not unmindful of their liberties the following instances will shew. Vol. I. p. 274, " because the court *overruled* certain objections *from being put*." Vol. I. p. 315, " if the award in question be good and valid in pursuance of the submission, it may undoubtedly be given or *pleaded in evidence*." Vol. II. p. 45, " to *arrest* the goods *from* the vendor under these circumstances," &c. Vol. III. p. 93, Court—" the verdict was clearly against the weight of evidence, and *ruled wrong* by the judge." We were sorry to observe in Vol. III. p. 180, in the opinion of Justice Livingston, so much pleasantry at the expense of dignity and decorum. Humour is a very good thing, but it no more becomes the legal robe upon the bench, than the sacerdotal at the altar. We were not less disagreeably impressed by the positive and dogmatical manner, in which the same judge gives his opinion, after that of the chief justice, which was different, in Vol. II. p. 286. All these defects, however, are but small excrescences upon a surface generally smooth and polished. The close general adherence to English authorities and precedents ; the numerous commercial and general cases, which will afford information and argument, if not authority, to the profession in every state ; the great industry and investigation displayed by the court, and its extensive learning, not only in commercial law, but in the whole circle of law, ancient and modern, foreign and domestick, will render these reports a valuable acquisition to the country at large. These volumes will be less valuable to the profession generally, on account of the numerous cases upon practice, with which they are crowded. But this was unavoidable. It is the business of a reporter, for the information of practitioners, to report every case, however unimportant it may be, in deciding general principles. There are several cases particularly deserving notice, as deciding important principles. The case of Hitchcock *vs*. Aiken, Vol. I. p. 460, in which it was decided, that the judgment of a foreign state should not be considered as a domestick judgment, but as *prima facie* evidence of debt only, is important in this point of view. Some, perhaps may doubt of the correctness of the decision, when tested by the constitution, but none will hesitate to acknowledge the practical propriety and utility of the doctrine, if it can be reconciled with the constitution. In the case of Nash *vs*. Tupper, Vol. I. p. 402, it was determined that in a suit upon a foreign contract, the statute of limitation of the state of New-York should govern. There are many other cases of general utility.

ART. 30.

Original Poems : By Thomas Green Fessenden, Esq. author of Terrible Tractoration, or Caustic's petition to the Royal College of Physicians, and Democracy Unveiled. Philadelphia : printed at the Lorenzo Press of E. Bronson, 1806. *pp.* 204. 12*mo.*

THE author of these poems has been singularly fortunate in receiving that applause, which has sometimes been denied to others of equal merit. This mode of publishing a collection of occasional poems, many of which have appeared in the newspapers of the day, may be the means of attaining present notoriety, but will hardly secure future fame. The author writes with ease, or, at least, easy verses. But he is unfortunate in the republication of many of the political satires. They are well enough for the moment, but the publick absolutely nauseate the repeated accounts of obscure, factious individuals, who rise and perish, in the progress of party, like *Fungi* on a dungheap.

The extracts from reviews, at the end of the volume, the author ſhould not have permitted the printer to have published; they were allowable, while the latter was announcing the work, to influence its sale, but an author should not thus violate all decency and decorum in binding up his own praises with his works. The insolent condescension in one of these paragraphs is amusing.

> We preſume this writer to be an American; and, conſidering the ſtate of literature in that country, his productions are quite as good as could be expected from one of its natives. His ſerious productions are, upon the whole, the beſt; ſtill he is, by no means, deſtitute of humour. *Critical Review.*

Though the humorous pieces predominate, the author will derive as much lasting applause from those which are serious. We extract a sapphick, not because it is superiour to the rest, but as a fair specimen of the work, and it describes an amusement which is "*all the rage.*"

Horace Surpaſſed: or, a beautiful deſcription of a New-England Country-Dance.

How funny 'tis, when pretty lads and laſſes
Meet all together, juſt to have a caper,
And the black fiddler plays you ſuch a tune as
Sets you a friſking.

High bucks and ladies, ſtanding in a row all,
Make finer ſhow than troops of continentals.
Balance and foot it, rigadoon and chaſſee,
Brimful of rapture.

Thus poets tell us how one Miſter Orpheus
Led a rude foreſt to a country-dance, and
Play'd the briſk tune of Yankee Doodle on a
New Holland fiddle.

Spruce our gallants are, eſſenc'd with pomatum,
Heads powder'd white as Killington-Peak ſnow-
ſtorm:
Ladies, how brilliant, faſcinating creatures,
All ſilk and muſlin!

But now behold a ſad reverſe of fortune,
Life's brighteſt ſcenes are checker'd with diſaſter,
Clumſy Charles Clumfoot treads on Tabby's
gown, and
Tears all the tail off!

Stop, ſtop the fiddler, all away this racket—
Hartſhorn and water! ſee the ladies fainting,
Paler than primroſe, fluttering about like
Pigeons affrighted!

Not ſuch the turmoil, when the ſturdy farmer
Sees turbid whirlwinds beat his oats & rye down,
And the rude hail-ſtones, big as piſtol-bullets,
Daſh in his windows!

Though 'twas unhappy, never ſeem to mind it,
Bid punch and ſherry circulate the briſker;
Or, in a bumper flowing with Madeira,
Drown the misfortune.

Willy Wagnimble dancing with Flirtilla,
Almoſt as light as air-balloon inflated,
Rigadoons round her, 'till the lady's heart is
Forc'd to ſurrender.

Benny Bamboozle cuts the drolleſt capers,
Juſt like a camel, or a hippopot'mos,
Jolly Jack Jumble makes as big a rout as
Forty Dutch horſes!

See Angelina lead the mazy dance down,
Never did fairy trip it ſo fantaſtick;
How my heart flutters, while my tongue pro-
nounces,
Sweet little ſeraph!

Such are the joys that flow from country-dancing,
Pure as the primal happineſs of Eden,
Wine, mirth, and muſick, kindle in accordance
Raptures extatick.

The description of "*Tabitha Towzer*," page 130, is an excellent burlesque: the writer is very successful and very meritorious, when describing American village manners, in making allusions to the objects and scenery peculiar to his country. We venture to advise Mr. Fessenden to seek a little more variety in his versification, to sometimes adopt the style of Colman; above all, to study the bewitching naiveté, the unequalled graces of La Fontaine.

ART. 31.

A Treatise on the diseases of children, and management of infants from the birth. By Michael Underwood, M. D. Published by David West, Boston. Printed by D. Carlisle. 8*vo.*

THIS is indisputably the most complete account of the diseases of children in the English language. Dr. Underwood writes like a practitioner, who has verified evevery thing he asserts by his own experience, and he may therefore be relied on, so far as his remarks extend. This form of the work is destined for domestick use, and we recommend the perusal of it to fathers and mothers. Not, indeed, that they should employ it to play the quack upon their own children ; for those unfortunates, who have mothers that give medicine, are almost invariably unhealthy, and the greatest part perish in early life. But we offer this book to aid the obliteration of vulgar prejudices, to point out to parents the symptoms of indisposition which should alarm them, and above all, to instruct them by what management of diet and regimen their offspring are to be rendered healthy, vigorous, and beautiful.

The execution of this edition appears to excel that of any medical book, which has been printed in Boston. In typographical correctness it equals the English edition, to which, in other respects, it is decidedly superiour.

ART. 21.

Concluded from p. 260.

American Annals ; or a chronological history of America. By Abiel Holmes, D.D.

WHEREVER the Spanish invaders trod, their footsteps were marked with blood. In this all writers agree, such as were eyewitnesses, and relate an unvarnished tale, and such as paint in the strongest colours. They all likewise describe the pusillanimous conduct, the vile superstitions, and cruel customs of the Mexicans. We shall quote a passage from Dr. Holmes's Annals, which breathes an evangelical spirit, and shows something like political reflection.

P. 58. " Why did Montezuma admit Cortes into his capital, and subject himself to the grossest indignities, when he might unquestionably have expelled, if not annihilated, his army ? Antonio De Solis, the Spanish historiographer, says : " The very effects of it have since discovered, that God took the reins into his own hand on purpose to tame that monster ; making his unusual gentleness instrumental to the first introduction of the Spaniards, *a beginning from whence afterward resulted the conversion of those heathen nations.*" Conquest Mexico, ii. 141. We ought to adore that Providence, which we cannot comprehend ; but it is impious to insult it by assigning such reasons for its measures, as are contradicted by facts. The natural causes of the abject submission of Montezuma may perhaps be traced to a long and traditionary expectation of the subjection of the Mexican empire to a foreign power ; to the predictions of soothsayers, with their expositions of recent and present omens ; to the forebodings of a superstitious mind ; to the astonishment excited by the view of a new race of men with unknown and surprising implements of war ; and to the extraordinary success of the Spanish arms from the first moment of the arrival of Cortes on the Mexican coast."

One cause more substantial should be assigned, which has hastened the downfal of many other nations, viz. the arbitrary and cruel proceedings of a tyrant towards the various nations subject to his power. How many thousand of the natives of this region were in the army of Cortes, compared with the few Spaniards that were with him! He had uncommon sagacity, as well as valour,' and made the best use of their hatred to serve his purposes. They wished to humble the proud monarch, who could shake his rod over them for his amusement, as well as to gratify his rage; and by their assistance he overthrew the Mexican empire.

We shall quote another passage from the American Annals, which ought to be compared with the reflection of Antonio de Solis.

"In 1551. Bartholomew de la Casas, having zealously laboured fifty years for the liberty, comforts, and salvation of the natives of America, returned discouraged to Spain, at the age of seventy-seven years."

The work of our Annalist will be considered by many as more dry, meagre, and insipid, when he comes to treat of the affairs of New-England, than of Spanish America, where he could animate his materials, collected from old accounts, with passages from Robertson, Clavigero, or the author of European settlements, supposed to be the late Dr. Campbell. The documents are accurate, but not interesting, which relate to these colonies. We have had men of invincible industry to drudge in the mine for materials, but where do we find the men of science to purify them? Our fathers were men of excellent characters; but, after they had subdued the wilderness and formed their settlements, what great transactions are there for the subject of history, or even to enrich the work of an humble compiler? In their annals there is no variety to charm, no very splendid events to celebrate, no such information to be obtained, as they always expect, whose enlarged conceptions enable them to throw just observations upon human nature, or give extensive views of mankind. After all we can say of the rise and progress of these United States, there is no eventful period, till the revolution. There is not enough in our history to arrest the attention of readers in general, or to make a very splendid volume, though Robertson himself made an attempt upon the subject. We congratulate the author of the American Annals for what he has done; he has made them less tiresome and barren, than they have commonly been exhibited.

"The first plantation of the United States was in 1585. Sir R. Greenville left at Roanoke the English colony." *P.* 96.

This, it seems, was part of a fleet which Sir Walter Raleigh sent to Virginia, and which went back to England the year following. He was not easily discouraged, and sent a second colony. Soon after this colony returned to England, and for a time frustrated the expectations of a man, whose spirit, virtue, and romantick generosity will be ever remembered. Few great men can be compared with Sir Walter Raleigh. Dr. H. says, *this terminated the exertions of Sir Walter Raleigh*; but this is not consistent with his relation of affairs in 1602. "Sir Walter Raleigh, not abandoning all hope of the Virginia colony, made one effort more," &c. The prior discouragement happened in 1587.

We are also informed, that "the first English child, born in America, was baptised August 1587, by the name of Virginia." Such minutia, and even trifling anecdotes, may be entertaining and interesting in a book of annals, though we should not expect them upon the historick page. We learn too, that the first child born in New-England was *Peregrine White*. There is a quaintness in the name, as well as in that of *Seaborn*, which was given to a child of Mr. Cotton, born on the passage to N. England.

We hear also, that the Rev. Mr. Bentley is about collecting a very particular account of the *first cradle*, in which a child was rocked, born soon after our fathers landed in Salem.

"In 1602 Gosnold sailed further northward, & discovered Cape Cod. They landed on an island, which they called *Martha's Vineyard*."

We cannot so well account for this name, as that the *Elizabeth Islands* should be so called. Indeed we much doubt of its then bearing this name. In some old accounts it is called Martin's vineyard. We shall leave this matter to be disputed by the old-colony antiquarians, who may be as much amused by viewing the pebblestones as the rocks of our shores. One thing is evident, that the island now called Martha's Vineyard is not the island Gosnold landed upon. From traditionary accounts, from an old Dutch map of the coast, and from some positive evidence, the island so called by them is now called *Noman's land*.

As another specimen of Dr. Holmes's style, and method of relating things, we select the following passage:

"The first general court of the Massachusetts colony was holden at Boston. At this court many of the first planters attended, and were made free of the colony. This was the first general court, which the freemen attended in person. It was now enacted, that the freemen should in future have power to choose assistants, when they were to be chosen; and the assistants were empowered to choose out of their own number the governour and deputy governour, who, with the assistants, were empowered to make laws, and appoint officers for the execution of them. This measure was now fully assented to by the general vote of the people; but when the general court convened, early the next year, it rescinded this rule, and ordained, that the governour, deputy governour, and assistants, should be chosen by the freemen alone." *P.* 257.

The author refers us to Chalmers' Political Annals for this and several other documents, which may be depended upon, because they are taken from the Plantation Office. The late Governour Hutchinson frequently said, in conversation with his friends, that a complete history of the colonies could not be written, this side of the Atlantick, for want of these papers; that the writer must go to Great-Britain and there search the files of this office. To these Chalmers had access, and he certainly has made a book, worthy the perusal of all who would make themselves acquainted with the affairs of America. We learn also this fact, that private gentlemen as well as the officers of government, when we were under the crown, had their directions to give every kind of information concerning the state of the colonies; that a regular correspondence was kept up between the secretary of the lords of trade and plantation and certain individuals in this country, who do not always give their names with their letters, but who tell many facts, and often express their opinions. The late John Pownal, esq. had all these papers arranged, and numbered, and put into regular cases for publick use and the service of individuals. Indeed every thing, appertaining to the various offices of Great-Britain, is in such complete order, as appears wonderful to a person who is not acquainted with their regular manner of doing business; which is worthy the imitation of these United States. We know not whether there is not as much method at Washington; but we know that in some of the states their records resemble an oyster bank, more than a cabinet for papers; and that it would be bringing order out of confusion to make them fit for use. There may be exceptions, however, in some of the publick offices.

In 1654. A sumptuary law was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts. Vide p. 354, marginal note. They "acknowledge it to be a matter of much difficulty in regard of the blindness of men's minds and the stubbornness of their wills, to set down exact rules to confine all sorts of people"; yet "cannot but account it their duty to commend unto all, the sober and moderate use of these blessings," &c. The court proceed to order, that no person whose estate shall not exceed the true and indifferent sum of 200*l.* shall wear any gold or silver lace, or gold or silver buttons, or any bone lace above 2 shillings per yard, or silk hoods or scarves, on the penalty of 10 shillings for every such offence. The law authorizes and requires the selectmen of every town to take notice of the apparel of any of the inhabitants, and to assess such persons "as they shall judge to exceed their ranks and abilities, in the costliness or fashion of their apparel in any respect, especially as to the wearing of ribbands and great boots," at 200*l.* estates, according to the proportion which such men use to pay to whom such apparel is suitable and allowed. An exception, however, is made in favour of publick officers and their families, and of those "whose education and employment have been above the ordinary degree, and whose estates have been considerable, though now decayed." We smile at the simplicity of our forefathers; but the mother country had set an example of similar measures, effected in a more summary manner. In the reign of queen Elizabeth "began in England long tucks and rapiers," which succeeded the sword and buckler; "and he was held the greatest gallant, that had the deepest ruffe and longest rapier. The offence unto the eye of the one, and the hurt unto the life of the subject that come by the other, caused her majesty to make proclamation against them both, and to place selected grave citizens at every gate to cut the ruffes, and break the rapier points, of all passengers that exceeded a yeard in length of their rapiers, and a nayle of a yeard in depth of their ruffes." Stow. Chron. 869.

There are many references to authorities in the American Annals. As far as we have been able to look them over, they are very exact, and there are very few typographical errours. When the author depends upon *hearsay*, he sometimes is mistaken; as for instance, p. 371, speaking of Mr. Hopkins's donation, in a marginal note. "He gave 500*l.* out of his estate in England to trustees in New-England for the upholding and promoting the kingdom of our Lord Jesus Christ in those parts of the earth;" which donation was considered as made to Harvard College and the grammar-school in Cambridge, and by virtue of a decree in chancery was paid in 1710, &c. &c.

This account of the Hopkinton fund is just, till he mentions the liberality of the general court. But it is a great mistake to say, that the court made any addition to the funds. There is a difference between an act, which enabled the trustees to receive their just dues, which was the only thing done, and to give credit for a donation. The funds accumulated by the value of the estate; and an application being made to the general court, they were put upon such a foundation, that the trustees can draw for so much money as enables them to give very considerable encouragement to young gentlemen, who reside in Cambridge for the sake of pursuing their theological studies. We certainly object against putting that upon the score of benevolence, which was only an act of justice.

In page 356 a very unnecessary compliment is introduced to a gentleman, who is called F.R.S. Dr. H. may recollect, that these letters mean the *London Society*;....this is a very different society from the *Royal Society of Edinburgh*, which is always distinguished by F.R.S.E. Supposing the gentleman, however, to be a member of either society, why is he brought forth to prove a thing, which no one doubts? Many gentlemen have seen the Columbium, and it is well known that "it attracted much notice," and that the place where it was taken is near New-London. It is well to mention, that the American Academy of Arts and Sciences are about giving an account of this mineral. We are glad to learn that they are BUSILY employed.

In our review of the American Annals we mean to be equally candid and just. It is our opinion that the work would appear more perfect, were there not such a profusion of compliments and acknowledgments to every one, who has favoured the author with a book, manuscript, or observation. It detracts from the worth of the praise, when gratitude is expressed to those who richly deserve it, if every little trifling acquisition is made the subject of a note, or considered as an important literary document.

These hints may serve to benefit the author. We really think, he deserves much credit for his labours, and that these Annals will be regarded by the judicious among the useful publications, which have issued from the American press.

ART. 32.

The Pleasures of the Imagination, a poem in three books. By Dr. Akenside. Portland, T. B. Wait. *8vo.*

A VERY neat, not to say elegant, edition of one of the most beautiful poems in the English language; and we believe very correctly printed. We do not altogether like the form, large octavo, which, in so thin a volume, looks awkwardly. If printed in 12mo. or 18mo. it would have made, we think, a better appearance. In other respects it is a handsome edition.

ART. 33.

Democracy Unveiled, or tyranny stripped of the garb of patriotism. By Christopher Caustic, LL.D. &c. &c. In 2 vols. 3d edition. New-York, for I. Riley and Co.

Did the author think it necessary to subjoin to his third edition every thing that any person in England or America has ever said, not only of the work now before us, but of his other productions? Here are sixteen witnesses introduced to inform the publick, when they can decide as well without them, for the circumstances are within their own knowledge. Had these recommendations been omitted, would the author have feared censure; and is not this an unfair mode of averting it? This is not the self-supported confidence, which the author, since his success, might have justly displayed.

Of the great additions in verse and prose to the present edition, we can say, they are not inferiour to the rest of the work, nor unworthy of their relation to the elder-born. But two volumes! Indeed, 'tis too much for our poor pockets to pay for.

The most valuable remarks among the addenda will be found in the notes on page 26 and 195 of the second volume. The ridicule upon a letter from one great man to another, containing some whimsical observations on general polity, might have been supported by reference to any really profound historians or philosophers. "We see," says the letter-writer, "numerous societies of men, the aboriginals of this country, living together without the acknowledgment of either laws or magistracy, yet they live in peace among themselves, and acts of violence and injury are as rare in their societies, as in nations which keep the sword of the law in perpetual activity," &c. Nonsense.

Redeunt Saturnia regna;
Jam nova progenies cœlo dimittitur alto.

When the famous Locke formed a paper constitution for a community, his schemes soon dishonoured his judgment; yet was his reasoning generally conclusive, and his acquaintance with the history and state of man indisputable. But there are some politicians who can find an excuse for the absurdity of their deductions in their ignorance of facts.

The printers of this work, honourable and liberal as any our country can boast among that class of men, always distinguished for their honour and their liberality, generally deserve credit for their correct editions; but errours within their department are sometimes discernible. In the list of errata we do not find a correction of a gross mistake in page 17th of the introduction, where lines from Horace are quoted as prose. Can this be the fault of the poet?

ART. 34.

The Anatomy of the Human Body. By William Cheselden. With forty copper-plates. Second edition. Published by David West. 8*vo.*

AS this work is perfectly known to the publick, and an edition of it has appeared in Boston before, we need only remark, that this edition is very handsomely executed, uncommonly free from errours, and will bear a comparison with the London edition.

ART. 35.

A Sermon, preached in the audience of his Excellency Caleb Strong, Esq. Governour; his Honour Edward H. Robbins, Esq. Lieutenant-Governour; the honourable the Council, Senate, and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, on the anniversary election, May 28, 1806. By Samuel Shepard, A.M. Congregational minister of Lenox. Boston, Young & Minns, printers to the State. *8vo. pp.* 31.

THE passage of scripture, serving as the theme of this discourse, is that in 1 Chron. xxix. 12. *Both riches and honour come of thee, and thou reignest over all; and in thine hand is power and might; and in thine hand it is to make great, and to give strength unto all.* We acknowledge the propriety of the text for such an occasion; but, for aught we can see of the writer's design in selecting it, there are five hundred texts in the bible, which would have been equally fit for his purpose. The capital defect of the performance is want of point and want of order. The sermon contains many important remarks; but it is difficult to discern their particular object. The preacher has brought together several just reflexions on the providence of God, on the people of Israel, on our own country, on the christian religion, and on the duties of rulers; but they neither come in as precedents, nor follow as consequents: they hold in fact no manifest connexion with any manifest design of the author. Yet the sermon is not destitute of merit, and we willingly insert the ensuing description of the Jewish theocracy, as the most favourable specimen of its style.

They were alſo bleſſed with an excellent conſtitution of government. It is ſometimes called a *Theocracy*; but excepting ſome particular acts of royalty, which God reſerved immediately to himſelf, it was in its viſible form, and as originally committed to the adminiſtration of man, republican. Oppoſed to every ſyſtem of tyranny and oppreſſion, it was well adapted to ſecure and perpetuate the rights and privileges of every member of the community. If the Iſraelites were not a free and independent people, the fault was in themſelves. To the diſtinction, freedom, and independence of each tribe, their agrarian law was peculiarly favourable. In each province, all the freeholders muſt be not only Iſraelites, but deſcendants of the ſame patriarch. The preſervation of their lineage was alſo neceſſary to the tenure of their lands. The ſeveral tribes, while they were united as one commonwealth, ſtill retained their diſtinction and privileges, and were independent of each other. Each tribe was in a ſenſe, a diſtinct ſtate, having its own prince, elders, and judges, and at the ſame time was one of the united ſtates of Iſrael. They had, alſo, a national council. This which might with propriety be called a general congreſs, was compoſed of the princes, the elders, and heads of families from all the tribes. It was the buſineſs of this aſſembly to attend to all matters, which related to the common intereſt; ſuch as levying war, negociating peace, providing for, and apportioning the neceſſary expenſes of the nation, and deciding in matters of diſpute between particular tribes. No one tribe had a right of dictating to, or exerciſing ſuperiority over another. In this grand national aſſembly, reſided the higheſt delegated authority, and it was to be regarded by all the tribes with the greateſt reverence. A violation of the conſtitution, in this reſpect, ſubjected the offenders to the moſt ſevere penalty. This grand council of the nation had its preſident, who was conſtituted ſuch upon republican principles.

ART. 36.

Preparation for war the best security for peace. Illustrated in a sermon delivered before the Ancient and Honourable Artillery

Company, on the anniversary of their election of officers, Boston, June 2, 1806. *By James Kendall, A.M. minister of the First Church in Plymouth.* Boston, printed at the Anthology Office, by Munroe and Francis. 1806.

Of this discourse it is but justice to observe, that it is decidedly superiour to the majority of productions of its class. It is particularly free from the common-place cant of our anniversary effusions, and discovers occasionally some symptoms of eloquence. The history of Hezekiah, at the period that he was invaded by the king of Assyria, is a fortunate text-matter for the orator of 1806, and his manner of manœuvering it for the edification of his countrymen remarkably creditable to his understanding and heart. The only quarrel that we have with Mr. Kendall comes from his making use of *shakened* instead of *shaken*, and his introduction of two rhetorical beings of the colossal order within the narrow compass of his pages. Now, one giant, in all conscience, is sufficient for a sermon, unless the preacher is desirable of reminding us of Gog and his partner.

ART. 37.

Travels to the west of the Alleghany Mountains, in the states of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, and back to Charleston, by the upper Carolinas; comprising the most interesting details on the present state of agriculture, and the natural produce of those Countries, &c.; undertaken in the year 1802, *by F. A. Michaux, member of the society of Natural History at Paris, Correspondent of the Agricultural Society in the Department of the Seine and Oise.* 8vo. pp. 306.

This is a work which steals on the world without any splendid promises or pompous pretensions, yet, at a future era, it may attract the attention of the historian, as one of the intermediate links which connect a prosperous empire with the laborious efforts of industrious emigrants and infant colonists. It is, indeed, of importance to mark the gradual, the insensible progress of an enterprising population. The men who shot woodcocks in the forests where Philadelphia now stands, have been known by many yet alive; and half a million of persons now inhabit countries, where, twenty years since, the foot only of the wandering savage was heard. Vast is the object that thus fills the mind! immense the prospect offered to future ages! We can only notice, in a few pages, this link which connects the past with the future, which leads to events the most astonishing and important; in which the imagination can neither be guided or corrected by reason. It is now time to change the language which partial views and temporary information occasioned. What was styled the northern portion of the American continent, was not confined on the west by the chain of mountains which pervades that vast mass of land, and which, resisting the ocean on either side, divides America like an insect, at the Isthmus of Panama, but by the Alleghanies, which separate the low alluvial lands left, apparently at a late period, by the ocean, from the higher regions. The northern states have been styled the eastern, as they project farther into the Atlantick, while those below Pennsylvania obtained the appellation of southern. In our present view both are eastern, and the truly west country is beyond the Alleghany mountains or their continuation, which are lost as they approach Georgia, or the Floridas. On the north, immediately below Lake Erie, the Alleghany and Fayette counties disappear in the Ohio country, and Kentucky; this last is again succeeded by the Tenessee, which, on the west and south, is followed by Louisiana and the Floridas.

We have, as usual, to regret, in our author's tour, the want of a map. It is sufficient for us to remark, that the author proceeds from Philadelphia westward, till he falls in with the vast streams of the Ohio. These he follows, with some deviations, in a south-western course, till he returns by low Carolina to Charleston.

To follow our author minutely over mountains and "barrens;" through forests, and across the deserted beds of winter torrents, would be useless. We have pointed out this work as the link for the future historian, and it is our business to trace only the more prominent features. M. Michaux is a man of science and observation. He is not a speculator, recommending the purchase of lands in the western country; though we suspect he does not explain all the difficulties of the situation; but he offers, on the whole, the fruits of attentive investigation. We are sorry to add, that he appears in disadvantageous colours, from the very numerous faults of his printer, and the gallicisms of his translator. To the experienced and scientifick reader, these are only slight impediments: to others they may be serious obstacles. While we wander through countries often visited and as frequently described, we have little temptation to enlarge: yet we may remark, from a professed naturalist, the son of a man who had travelled, with similar views, through some of the most inaccessible regions of the United States, the numerous and valuable species of oaks which he had occasion to notice, and the various nut-trees, which might form an useful and interesting monography, though peculiarly intricate and of difficult discrimination.

Log-houses is a term often employed, and though generally used, the ideas of their construction are not very precise and discriminate. We shall select, therefore, a short sketch of their form.

"It is not useless to observe here, that in the United States they give often the name of town to a group of seven or eight houses, and that the mode of constructing them is not the same every where. At Philadelphia the houses are built with brick. In the other towns and country places that surround them, the half, and even frequently the whole, is built with wood; but at places within seventy or eighty miles of the sea, in the central and southern states, and again more particularly in those situated to the westward of the Alleghany Mountains, one-third of the inhabitants reside in log-houses. These dwellings are made with the trunks of trees, from twenty to thirty feet in length, about five inches diameter, placed one upon another, and kept up by notches, cut at their extremities. The roof is formed with pieces of similar length to those that compose the body of the house, but not quite so thick, and gradually sloped on each side. Two doors, which often supply the place of windows, are made by sawing away a part of the trunks that form the body of the house. The chimney, always placed at one of the extremities, is likewise made with the trunks of trees of a suitable length; the back of the chimney is made of clay about six inches thick, which separates the fire from the wooden walls. Notwithstanding this want of precaution, fires very seldom happen in the country places. The space between these trunks of trees is filled up with clay, but so very carelessly, that the light may be seen through in every part; in consequence of which these huts are exceedingly cold in winter, notwithstanding the amazing quantity of wood that is burnt. The doors move upon wooden hinges, and the greater part of them have no locks. In the night time they only push them to, or fasten them with a wooden peg. Four or five days are sufficient for two men to finish one of these houses, in which not a nail is used. Two great beds receive the whole family. It frequently happens that in the summer the children sleep upon the ground, in a kind of rug. The floor is raised from one to two feet above the surface of the ground, and boarded. They generally make use of feather beds, or feathers alone, and not mattresses. Sheep being very scarce, the wool is very dear; at the same time they reserve it to make stockings. The clothes belonging to the family are hung up round the room, or suspended upon a long pole." *P.* 28—30.

Our author had not yet crossed the Alleghanies, or extended his course beyond the confines of Philadelphia, when we find the singular remark, that during the war, in the time of the French revolution, the inhabitants of the neighborhood of Bedford found it more to their advantage to send their corn to Pittsburgh, and from thence to New Orleans, by the Ohio and Mississippi, a course of more than 2,000 miles, than to Philadelphia or Baltimore, not exceeding 200 or 250 miles. If this be generally true, what a prospect does it afford of the future prosperity of the western country!

The passage of the Alleghanies offers few remarks of interest or importance. On these mountains our author searched for a species of the Azalea, a plant of singular importance, since to the valuable qualities of the olive tree, it adds the power of bearing the cold of the most northern climates. He found it, and recognised it to be the same plant which his father had discovered; but the seeds had failed, in consequence of their soon growing rancid. We trust our author has been more fortunate, though of his success we have no information. It is a diœcious plant, not above five feet in height: its roots spread horizontally, and give birth to several shoots. The plant grows only in cool shady places, and in a fertile soil; the roots are of a citron colour. On these high grounds coal is not uncommon, but little attended to, as it is necessary to clear the ground from the trees. Labour is, however, dear, and the contest between expense and convenience, of course, frequent.

The vast river, the Ohio, is formed by the conflux of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers. At this junction Pittsburg is built, which was the site of Fort Duquesne, and the key of the western country. It is no longer of importance in a military view, but it is the connecting medium of the eastern and western states, and, as a commercial depôt, of peculiar value. Corn, hams, dried pork, bar iron, coarse linen, bottles, whiskey, and salt butter, from its dependencies, are embarked on the Ohio for the Caribbees, through New Orleans. At the latter port, they receive in exchange cotton, raw sugar, and indigo. These are sent by sea to Philadelphia and Baltimore; and the bargemen return to these ports, from which they go again by land to Pittsburgh.

"What many perhaps are ignorant of in Europe, is, that they build large vessels on the Ohio, and at the town of Pittsburgh. One of the principal ship-yards is upon the Monongahela, about two hundred fathoms beyond the last houses in the town. The timber they make use of is the white oak, or quercus alba; the red oak, or quercus rubra; the black oak, or quercus tinctoria; a kind of nut tree, or juglans minima: the Virginia cherry-tree, or cerasus Virginia; and a kind of pine which they use for masting, as well as for the sides of the vessels, which require a slighter wood. The whole of this timber being near at hand, the expenses of building is not so great as in the ports of the Atlantick states. The cordage is manufactured at Redstone and Lexington, where there are two extensive rope-walks, which also supply ships with rigging that are built at Marietta, and Louisville. On my journey to Pittsburgh, in the month of July, 1802, there was a three-mast vessel of two-hundred and fifty tons, and a smaller one of ninety, which was on the point of being finished. These ships were to go in the spring following to New Orleans, loaded with the produce of the country, after having made a passage of two thousand two hundred miles before they got into the Ocean. There is no doubt but they can, by the same rule, build ships two hundred leagues beyond the mouth of the Missouri, fifty from that of the river Illinois, and even in the Mississippi, two hundred beyond the place whence these rivers flow; that is to say, six hundred and fifty leagues from the sea; as their bed in the appointed space is as deep as that of the Ohio at Pittsburgh. In consequence of which it must be a wrong conjecture to suppose that the immense tract of country, watered by these rivers, cannot be populous enough to execute such undertakings. The rapid population of the three new western states, under less favourable circumstances, proves this assertion to be true. Those states, where thirty years ago there was scarcely three hundred inhabitants, are now computed to contain upwards of a hundred thousand; and though the plantations on the roads are scarcely four miles distant from each other, it is very rare to find one, even among the most flourishing, where one cannot with confidence ask the owner, whence he has emigrated; or, according to the trivial manner of the Americans, "what part of the world do you come from?" as if these immense and fertile regions were to be the asylum common to all the inhabitants of the globe. Now if we consider these astonishing and rapid ameliorations, what ideas must we not form of the height of prosperity to which the western country is rising, and of the recent spring that the commerce, population, and culture of the country is taking, by uniting Louisiana to the American territory." *P*. 63—65.

When it is recollected, that the distance from Pittsburgh to New Orleans exceeds 2,000 miles, and that the Ohio, before its junction with the Mississippi, runs through half this space, what must our ideas be in contemplating vessels of more than 200 tons seeking the ocean through such devious tracts, and in so extensive a course! Let us improve our acquaintance with the means by which this intercourse is facilitated:

"The Ohio, formed by the union of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, appears to be rather a continuance of the former than the latter, which only *happens* obliquely at the conflux. The Ohio may be at Pittsburgh two hundred fathoms broad. The current of this immense and magnificent river inclines at first north-west for about twenty miles, then bends gradually west south-west. It follows that direction for about the space of five hundred miles; turns thence south-west a hundred and sixty miles; then west two hundred and seventy-five; at length runs into theMississippi,in a south-westerly direction, in the latitude of 36° 46′, about eleven hundred miles from Pittsburgh, and nearly the same distance from Orleans. This river runs so extremely serpentine, that, in going down it, you appear following a tract directly opposite to the one you mean to take. Its breadth varies from two hundred to a thousand fathoms. The islands that are to be met with in its current are very numerous. We counted upwards of fifty in the space of three hundred and eighty miles. Some contain but a few acres, and others more than a thousand in length. Their banks are very low, and must be subject to inundations. These islands are a great impediment to the navigation in the summer. The sands that the river drives up, form, at the head of some of them, a number of little shoals; and in this season of the year the channel is so narrow, from the want of water, that the few boats, even of a middling size, that venture to go down, are frequently run aground, and it is with great difficulty that they are got afloat; notwithstanding which there is at all times a sufficiency of water for a skiff or a canoe. As these little boats are very light, when they strike upon the sands it is very easy to push them off into a deeper part. In consequence of this it is only in the spring and autumn that the Ohio is navigable, at least as far as Limestone, about one hundred and twenty miles fromPittsburg. During these two seasons the water rises to such a height, that vessels of three hundred tons, piloted by men who are acquainted with the river, may go down in the greatest safety. The spring season begins at the end of February, and lasts three months; the autumn begins in October, and only lasts till the first of December. In the meantime these two epochs fall sooner or later, as the winter is more or less rainy,or the rivers are a shorter or a longer time thawing. Again, it so happens, that in the course of the summer, heavy and incessant rains fall in the Alleghany mountains, which suddenly swell the Ohio: at that time persons may go down it with the greatest safety; but such circumstances are not always to be depended on." *P*. 68—70.

The Mississippi is interspersed with numerous shoals and islands, so that its navigation is far more dangerous than that of the Ohio, at least from Natches to New Orleans, a course of more than 700 miles. The rapidity of the Ohio is very considerable, and rowing is unnecessary. The appearance of the banks of the river, on leaving Pittsburgh, merits our attention:

"Leaving Pittsburgh, the Ohio flows between two ridges, or lofty mountains, nearly of the same height, which we judged to be about two hundred fathoms. Frequently they appeared undulated at their summit, at other times it seemed as though they had been completely level. These hills continue uninterruptedly for the space of a mile or more, then a slight interval is observed, that sometimes affords a passage to the rivers that empty themselves into the Ohio; but most commonly another hill of the same height begins at a very short distance from the place where the preceding one left off. These mountains rise successively for the space of three hundred miles, and from our canoe we were enabled to observe them more distinctly, as they were more or less distant from the borders of the river. Their direction is parallel to the chain of the Alleghanies; and although they are at times from forty to a hundred miles distant from them, and that for an extent of two hundred miles, one cannot help looking upon them as belonging to these mountains. All that part of Virginia, situated upon the left bank of the Ohio, is excessively mountainous, covered with forests, and almost uninhabited; where, I have been told by those who live on the banks of the Ohio, they go every winter to hunt bears." *P*. 84.

The flat woody ground between the river and these mountains consists of a vegetable mould, from decaying leaves, and even from the decayed trunks of trees. The best land in Kentucky and Tennessee is of the same kind, and its vegetative quality peculiarly strong. The plane-tree grows to an immense size; and the next in bulk is the liriodendron tulipifera. Other trees, which adorn and diversify the forests of the country, are the beech, magnolia acuminata, the celtis occidentalis, the acacia, the sugar and red maple, the black poplar, &c.

In this tract our author falls in with towns, consisting of from 70 to 200 houses, which till within a very few years had no existence, and are generally placed on the Ohio, or some of its tributary rivers, where the receding mountains leave a vacant and level spot. Below Marietta, a town on the Muskingum, at its conflux with the Ohio, the mountains recede still farther, and offer the following beautiful prospect:

"On the 23d of July, about ten in the morning, we discovered Point Pleasant, situated a little above the mouth of the great Kenhawa, at the extremity of a point formed by the right bank of this river, which runs nearly in a direct line as far as the middle of the Ohio. What makes the situation more beautiful, is, that for four or five miles on this side the point, the Ohio, four hundred fathoms broad, continues the same breadth the whole of that extent, and presents on every side the most perfect line. Its borders, sloping and elevated from twenty-five to forty feet, are, as in the whole of its windings, planted at their base with willows from fifteen to eighteen feet in height, the drooping branches and foliage of which form a pleasing contrast to the sugar maples, red maples, and ash trees, situated immediately above. The latter, in return, are overlooked by palms, poplars, beeches, magnolias of the highest elevation, the enormous branches of which, attracted by a more splendid light and easier expansion, extend toward the borders, overshadowing the river, at the same time completely covering the trees situated under them. This natural display which reigns upon the two banks, affords on each side a regular arch, the shadow of which, reflected by the chrystal stream, embellishes, in an extraordinary degree, this magnificent coup d'œil." *P*. 95, 96.

The banks of the Ohio are alluvial, and, where not covered with vegetable mould, are of a calcareous nature. The stones are flinty, and chiefly from the separation of the limestone masses. A species of mulette is chiefly employed in making buttons, as the pearly nacre is very thick. It is arranged by Bosc under the genus Unio, with the trivial name of Ohiotensis. The tyrant of the river is the cat fish, silurus felis: its upper fins are strong and pointed, and, by swimming under his prey, he is enabled to wound it where the skin is thinnest. The inhabitants of the banks are chiefly hunters, for the sake of the skins: a few acres only are cultivated for their cows, whose milk they greatly depend on. Plantations occur every three or four miles, and travellers are accommodated, in their miserable log-houses, with bread, Indian corn, dried ham, milk and butter. They themselves feed only on Indian corn: the wheat which is cultivated is exported in the form of flour. The peach and apple are their only fruit trees: the former is preferred, as hogs are fed, and brandy distilled from the fruit. The price of the best land does not exceed 15*s*. per acre. The sellers are seldom constant in their attachments, and few of those who first clear the ground, or who immediately succeed them, remain on it. The same restless principle urges them forward, and the Americans have now penetrated to the banks of the Missouri, forty miles above its union with the Mississippi. There are, it is said, more than 3,000 inhabitants on its banks, allured by a fertile soil, the numerous herds of beavers, elks, and bisons.

Our author leaves the banks of the Ohio, to direct his course south and south-west, towards Charleston. He stops in this journey at a salt-mine. In this elevated region there are many strata of rock salt, and salt springs often rise to the surface, leaving, in consequence of the evaporation, a saline efflorescence. To these spots, the original inhabitants of the forest, the wild beasts, usually repaired. Salt seems to numerous animals a condiment almost essential to their existence; and we find, in these spots, the remains of some species at present unknown, probably extinct. The soil round these "licks" is dry and sandy; the stones are flat and chalky, rounded at the edges, and of a bluish cast inside. The soil is barren, and the few trees thin and stinted.

Frankfort is the seat of government in Kentucky, but Lexington, in consequence of some advantages of situation, is the larger and more populous town. It supplies the shipping with rigging, and has several tan-yards, where leather is prepared with the bark of the black oak. Industry and ingenuity go hand in hand to add to the prosperity of the town and neighbourhood. Nitre, which is found in the neighbouring caverns, supplies the material for the manufacture of powder, and two mills have been erected. A pottery also, as in some other villages, is established. Various circumstances relative to the commerce of this part of America are added, but the balance of trade with Europe is apparently unfavorable to it. The attempt to plant vineyards in Kentucky has succeeded very imperfectly.

On the southern limits of Kentucky the "barrens" commence. These are open grounds, dry, and sometimes sterile, where little is met with but partridges; and where one woman told the author that she had not seen a single person for eighteen months. In some of these meadows, however, the grass is high, and marks of fertility appear. Trees of different kinds, and flowering shrubs, are also scattered around. In this district, our author thinks that the vineyards should have been planted, and he supposes that springs are at no great distance from the surface. The "barrens" are surrounded with a wood about three miles broad, which terminates in an impenetrable or, at least, unpenetrated forest.

A general description of Kentucky follows, for the greater part of which we must refer to the work. This state is about 400 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and has been securely settled only since 1783. About ten years afterwards it was admitted into the union as an independent state. Ginseng first appears in Kentucky, though more common in a more southern climate. Our author suspects that from twenty-five to thirty thousand weight is annually exported, and more care is now taken to prepare it in the state best adapted to the China market. The bisons have deserted this part of the country, and migrated to the right side of the Mississippi. Deers, bears, wolves, red and grey foxes, wild cats, racoons, opossums, and some squirrels, are the principal animals that remain. Turkeys, in a wild state, are still numerous. The cultivated production of Kentucky are tobacco, hemp, European grain, chiefly wheat, and Indian corn. The last yields from forty to seventy-five bushels per acre. Eighty-five thousand five hundred and seventy barrels of flour went, from the 1st of January, 1802, to the 30th of June following, from Louisville to low Louisiana: more than two-thirds of which was from Kentucky. A barrel contains the flour of five bushels of wheat corn, about ninety-six pounds. The culture of tobacco has been greatly extended. Hemp also is an increasing article of commerce. In 1802 more than 42,000 pounds of raw hemp, and about 24,000 cwt. converted into cables, were exported. Flax is cultivated by many families. Rearing and taming horses is a business now eagerly and advantageously followed, and horned cattle are bred in great abundance. These, driven to the back settlements of Pennsylvania and Virginia, supply the markets on the coast. Few sheep are fed or fattened; but the hogs are very numerous;

yet even in the woods they are not completely wild. Salt provisions is another important article of commerce; and in the first six months of 1802, 72,000 barrels of dried pork, and 2,485 of salt, were exported. Poultry are rarely bred, from the injury they might do to the crops of Indian corn. Of the religious sects, the methodists and anabaptists are most numerous. Education, even in these sequestered regions, is carefully attended to.

Nashville is the old town in Tenesse, but has no manufactory or publick establishment. Every thing is very dear, as the boats are obliged to go above Pittsburgh, on the Ohio, before they meet with the river Cumberland, on which Nashville is built. The author still approaches Carolina, in his progress to Knoxville; and in his journey passes the mountains of Cumberland, to which the name of the Wilderness is assigned. These mountains divide east and west Tenessee, which thus seperated, may probably become distinct states. One of the branches of theCumberland is styled "Roaring River," from its numerous cascades. The right bank of this River rises from 80 to 100 feet in some places, and we mention it particularly, since it rests upon a bed of chistus, the first instance of this rock recorded in the author's observations. In the caverns in the neighbourood, probably calcareous, extensive aluminous masses of considerable purity are discovered. M. Michaux now arrives within about 700 miles from Baltimore and Philadelphia, and about 400 miles from Richmond. We shall, therefore, conclude our account of his journey, with a few remarks on Tenessee in general. This state is situated to the south of Kentucky, between Ohio and the Alleghany mountains. It is nearly square, its length exceeding its breadth only by about sixty miles in 300, its shortest diameter; and was admitted into the union as an independent state in 1796. It formerly was a part of North Carolina. Its river, Tenessee, with the Holston, has a navigable course for near 800 miles, interspersed, during the summer, with shoals. It is not closely inhabited; and its chief productions are cotton and iron: the soil is fat and clayey.

We have already offered our reasons or our apologies for the length to which our article has extended; and have reprehended, though perhaps without sufficient severity, the gross errors of the translator and printer. Another translation, with a map, would prove a valuable acquisition to the geographer, the scientifick enquirer, and the commercial speculatist; for though, as we have said, we do not implicitly trust all the representations, the great features of nature are carefully, and, we believe, accurately copied. *I. R.*

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR JULY, 1806.

Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

The New-York Medical Repoſitory and Review of American publications in medicine, ſurgery, and the auxilliary branches of ſcience, No. XXXVI. for February, March, and April, 1806, which completes the 9th vol. New-York, T. & J. Swords.

The Flowers of Literature; being a compendious exhibition of the moſt intereſting geographical, hiſtorical, miſcellaneous, and theological ſubjects in miniature; intended to facilitate the improvement of youth in particular, and adults in general, whoſe pecuniary reſources will not admit them to purchaſe, nor relative avocations allow time to peruſe voluminous productions on theſe important heads. To which are prefixed, Preliminary Addreſſes to parents, teachers, and their pupils. By Thomas Branagan. 75 cts. boards. Trenton, New Jerſey.

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Copy of a Letter of July 4, 1805, to the Preſident of the United States, &c. By James Lovell. 8vo. Boſton, Andrew Newell.

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INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Allen B. Magruder, late of Kentucky, has for ſome time paſt been collecting materials for a General Hiſtory of the Indians of North America—their Numbers, Wars, &c. for which purpoſe he has requeſted the aſſiſtance of thoſe gentlemen whoſe ſituations in life have been ſuch as to render them acquainted with Indian affairs. Mr. Magruder now holds an appointment under the government of the United States at New Orleans; and in conſequence of his being neceſſarily abſent from Kentucky, he authorized the Editor of the Kentucky Gazette to receive all communications on the aforementioned ſubject. This

Editor introduces an extract from one of theſe documents in the following manner.

" Since the departure of Mr. Magruder from this place, a communication was incloſed to the editor for him, from which the following is extracted. Some parts of the communication will, doubtleſs, be conſidered intereſting.

The French were the firſt nation of white people that ever were known among the North-Weſtern Indians. When the Britiſh and French commenced a war againſt each other in North America, the North-Weſtern Indians joined the French, and [illegible] of the Six Nations joined the Britiſh. My knowledge of the actions that were fought between them, is derived from the old Indians, that I have converſed with on that ſubject, and is not to be relied on.

After the Britiſh got poſſeſſion of this country from the French, a Tawway chief, by the name of Potacock, renewed the war againſt the Britiſh, and took all the poſts that were occupied by them on the lakes and their waters, in one day, (Detroit excepted,) by ſtratagem. After this, in 1774, the war broke out between the North-Weſtern Indians and the Whites. The principal action that was fought between the parties, was at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway—there were 300 Shawanees and Delawares, and a few Miammies, Wyandots and Mingoes, commanded by the celebrated Shawanee chief, called Comſtock. This was the war that ended at the treaty of Greenville. Although at different times, individual nations would treat, or pretend to do ſo, with the Americans; it was only a temporary thing; for it frequently happened, that while a party of Indians were treating with the Whites, ſome of their own people would be killing the very people that their own chiefs were treating with.

The Indians that oppoſed general Sullivan were the combined forces of the ſix nations. Their numbers and by whom commanded, I do not know. The Indians that defeated general Crawford at Sanduſky, were the Wyandots, Delawares, Shawanees, and a few of the ſix nations, or Senacas—Powtowottomies and Ottoways, ſaid to be 800 in number. I never heard who commanded them. As the Indians always keep the number of their killed and wounded as much a ſecret as poſſible, I ſhall not undertake to ſay what numbers were killed and wounded at either of the actions above mentioned.

Bowman's campaign was againſt the Shawanees on the Little Miami River. I am not acquainted with any of the particulars of the action that took place between him and thoſe Indians; alſo my knowledge of the different campaigns carried againſt the Shawanees, on Mad River and Big Miami, by general Clarke, is not to be depended on.

When general Harmar arrived at the Miami Town, he ſent Col. John Harden in ſearch of the Indians, with a body of men, when he met 300 Miamies, on the head of Eel River, commanded by the celebrated Miami chief, the Little Turtle—an action took place—the whites were defeated—the Indians had one man killed and two wounded. The Indians that fought the troops under the command of Col. Harden, in the Miami town, were the 300 above mentioned, commanded by the ſame chief. Alſo a body of 500 Indians, compoſed of Shawanees, Delawares, Chippeways, Pottowotomies and Ottoways—the Shawanees commanded by their own chief, Blue Jacket; the Delawares by Buckingeheles; the Ottoways and Chippeways, by Agaſhewah, an Ottoway chief. The Indians ſay they had 15 killed, and 25 wounded. General Scott's campaign was againſt the Weas Town on the Wabaſh, where he met with little or no oppoſition; as the warriors of the Weas expected that Geneeral Scott was going againſt the Miami Town, and had all left their own village to meet him. At that place 8 men and 2 women were killed by the troops under Gen. Scott. At the Weas, the number of women and children he took priſoners, I do not remember.

Gen. Wilkinſon's campaign was againſt the Eel River Town, where there were but a few women and children, and ten old men and three young ones, who made no defence, Four men were killed, with one woman. The number of women and children taken, I do not recollect. In the autumn of 1790 an army of Indians, compoſed of Miammies, Delawares, Shawanees, and a few Pottowottomies, 300 in number, commanded by the Little Turtle, attacked Dunlap's Station, on the Big Miammi River. This poſt was commanded by lieutenant Kingſbury. The Indians had 10 killed, and the ſame number wounded.

There were 1133 Indians that defeated Gen. St. Clair, in 1791. The number of different tribes is not remembered. It was compoſed of Miammies, Pottowottomies, Ottowies, Chippeways, Wyandots, Delawares, Shawanees, and a few Mingoes and Cherokees. Each nation was commanded by their own chief, all of whom appeared to be governed by the Little Turtle, who made the arrangement for the actions, and commenced the attack with the Miammies, who were under his immediate command. They had 30 killed, and died with their wounds, the day of the action, and it is believed 50 wounded.

In the autumn of 1792 an army of 300 Indians, under the command of the Little Turtle, compoſed of Miammies, Delawares, Shawanees, and a few Pottowottomies, attacked Col. John Adair, under the walls of Fort St. Clair, where they had two men killed.

The 30th June, 1794, an army of 1450 Indians, compoſed of Ottoways, Chippeways, Miammies and Wyandots, Pottowottomies, Shawanees, Delawares, with a number of French and other white men, in the Britiſh intereſt, attacked Fort Recovery. The Indians were commanded by the Bear chief, an Ottoway. The white men, attached to the Indian army, it is ſaid, were commanded by Elliot and M'Kee, both Britiſh officers. The garriſon was commanded by captain Gibſon, of the 4th ſub-legion. The Indians have told me repeatedly, that they had between 40 and 50 killed, and upwards of 100 wounded; a number of whom died. This was the ſevereſt blow I ever knew the Indians to receive from the Whites.

The Indians that ſought Gen. Wayne the 20th of Auguſt, 1794, were an army of 800, made up of Wyandots, Chippeways, Ottoways, Delawares, Shawanees, Miammies and Pottowottomies, with a number of white traders from Detroit. The Indians were governed by Britiſh influence, and had no commander of their own; conſequently they made but little reſiſtance. It is ſaid they had 20 killed and 15 wounded. This battle was what may be called the finiſhing blow; as no action of conſequence has taken place between the Whites and Indians ſince that time.

There was no ſeparate cauſe for each campaign of the Indians againſt the Whites. The war that began in 1774, which was cauſed by the ill treatment the Indians received from the Whites, on the frontiers of the white ſettlement, was continued by the Indians, owing to the great influence the Britiſh had among them. This influence was kept up by the large ſupplies of arms and ammunition the Indians received from the Britiſh government every year. From this it is evident, that if the United States had have gotten poſſeſſion of the poſts on the lakes, that the Britiſh government had agreed to deliver up to them in 1783, there would have been no Indian war after that time.

Statement of Diseases, from May 20 to June 20.

The close of May was remarkable for a cloudless atmosphere, and regular east winds. Vegetation began to suffer from want of moisture. June commenced with pleasant showers, which have since fallen every few days, though not in sufficient abundance to saturate the soil. The winds have been almost equally from the south-west and east, and sometimes from the north-east and north-west. No remarkable atmospherick phenomena succeeded the eclipse on the 16th, unless that the winds have been rather more violent than ordinary.

The month of June is commonly considered here to be the healthiest month of the year; and the present has so well verified that opinion, as that we have scarcely any disease to record; for the only prevalent disorder has been a mild typhoid fever. A few cases of cynanche maligna have appeared.

Vaccination under the hands of the Boston physicians has flourished uncommonly during this month and the two preceding. From the data we can obtain, it seems probable that never before had there been so great a number of cases, during the same space of time. No accident has occurred to impede the progress of this practice. We would however hint the necessity of constant watchfulness, lest any imperfect cases should escape attention.

Statement of Diseases, from June 20 to July 20.

The winds of the month past have been principally from the westward. The south-west has prevailed most: next, the north-west; and the pure west more than usual. Many small showers of rain have fallen; and the temperature of the atmosphere has been for the most part moderate.

Derangements of the stomach and intestines have been more common than any other complaints. They have generally appeared with the symptoms of colick, and yielded readily to medicine. Some of them have been more obstinate, and seemed to produce, or at least to precede, an invasion of fever. This last, of which there has been a number of cases, was of a mild character. A very few instances of typhus gravior have occurred. This is the moment which demands the vigilance of the police to prevent, as far as their powers can do so, the generation or introduction of malignant diseases. Some instances of acute rheumatism have been seen this month.

Many cases of vaccination exist in Boston.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

AUGUST, 1806.

NATURAL HISTORY.

To the Editors of the Monthly Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

I OBSERVED in your publication, some months ago, a description of the falls of Niagara. Of the view of that wonderful cataract, more justly than of a perusal of Homer or of Milton, may it be said, *decies repetita placebit*. If therefore you think a second picture worth looking at, you may publish the following. But that you might not turn with disgust, as from an old subject, I have transcribed from my journal an account of two other curiosities in the remote part of New-York.

Aug. 25. We had from our host at Onondaga a very copious description of the salt springs, distant only six miles from the Western turnpike, and, altho' the road was unpleasant, we did not regret following his advice to visit them. These springs are on the border of Onondaga lake, and at present above its level; but they are sometimes covered with the fresh water of the lake. Yet the works are not often retarded by the freshes, as the specifick gravity and strong saline virtue is not diminished, unless the wind blows very hard. We know, that in rivers, as the tide rises, the fresh water often floats above. These springs may perhaps be found in any part of the marsh, but there are only six pits sunk. From these are made ninety-two thousand bushels of salt yearly, that pay a duty of four cents per bushel, as the propriety of the soil is claimed by the state; but we may suppose, that no small quantity is carried off, without satisfying that trifling requisition.

Almost every thing here is conducted without system; for the government of the state will dispose of the soil only in leases, never exceeding seven years. This may indeed prevent monopoly; but it also restrains the employment of capital, and diminishes the utility of the gift of nature. The water is raised from the pits by pumps, which have heretofore been worked by men; but this year has so far enlightened the overseers, as to induce them to construct machinery for raising the water to be moved by a horse. From these pumps spouts run to the boiling houses on the bank, about seven or eight feet above the marsh; but as the wood in the immediate vicinity is nearly exhausted, an aqueduct carries this precious fluid two miles along the borders of this fresh water lake.

We were told that no Glauber salts could be obtained from the water; but this is the fault of the workmen, rather than [illegible] unkindness of nature. They neglect too the manufacture of pot and pearl ashes, carelessly mixing the worthless substance, which first settles in the operation of boiling, with the valuable contents of their ovens. This sediment is collected in a ladle put into the bottom of the kettle, or adheres to the sides, from which it must be removed by an axe before it acquires the thickness of three inches, or it will burst the stoutest of them.

The workmen here are miserably poor, commonly selling their salt on the spot at not more than one fourth of a dollar per bushel; and they say ardent liquors are absolutely requisite for their support, for the subterranean blowers at the forges of Vulcan never sweat more.

Aug. 27. We turned once more from the great road to visit the sulphur springs, distant about fourteen miles from Geneva. This spot in a Popish country would be called the outlet of hell. These springs are discoverable by the nose, at some seasons, for a mile round; but we were not favoured with the fragrance, more than a quarter of that distance. The road within two or three miles in each direction is as bad, as rocks, stumps, prominent branches and roots of trees, with ruts on the side and holes in the middle, can make. Bridges of large logs, commonly called gridiron bridges, occasionally intervene to make us regret, that we could no longer be permitted to pass thro' the mud.

The springs are very numerous, bursting out in every part of the hill, down which, united, they pour a river of sulphur, running over rocks of sulphur, cloathed with sulphureous moss. This is indeed the appearance, for every thing is soon covered with the slimy matter, deposited by the water; and the virtue, or rather vice of this fluid is so great, as to turn silver black in five minutes. In the bed of the stream are petrefactions, of which the most curious, being leaves and mosses, are torn off with difficulty, and are seldom brought away whole.

From one of the springs, nearest the road, the water, which is clear and very cold, is conveyed to the bathing-house. Its taste is disagreeable, but horses drink it with avidity. I think Dr. Morse has said the same for the Ballstown and Saratoga waters; but, though true of the principal spring at the latter place, every body assured me it was incorrect, as to the former.

The soil of this hill is very soft, so that one may thrust a stick as far into it, as into the clay pit of a marsh. To the depth of two feet nothing but brimstone is found, partially mixed with fibres of vegetables, and roots of trees, "fit to be the mast of some great admiral." Had this place been known to Milton before his blindness, how would his inexhaustible imagination have exulted in the copiousness of description it might have yielded. But the palace of Satan is well situated at present, though it might have found a better scite.

There stood a hill not far, whose grisly top
Belch'd fire and rolling smoke, the rest entire
Shone with a glossy scurf, undoubted sign,
That in his womb was hid metallick ore,
The work of sulphur.

The accommodations (we must use that word) are not worth the name. A log house is the chief, which contains two rooms; but the owner is building another house with two more rooms. Nearer the springs somebody has raised a hut of boards, cotaining neither chimney, nor chair, nor window, nor partition ; but he has chalked in front the letters "HOTEL," and on one side "Brimstone and Whiskey." Our divines never thought of so intimate a connexion in this world.

The number of sick who resort here, increases yearly. In many cases the waters are salubrious ; but as brimstone will always be unfashionable, the place will hardly become a resort for those, whose only complaint is ennui.

The president of the United States wished to purchase these springs for the government ; but Powell of Geneva has anticipated him. I believe any merchant could have assured him, that sulphur is imported from Italy much cheaper, than this could be carried from here to New-York.

The description of the cataract of Niagara is deferred to our next number.

CRITICISM.

Translated for the Anthology from the Cours de Literature of La Harpe.

Continued from page 348.

RACINE'S BRITANNICUS.

Boileau, and that small number of men of taste, who judge and are silent, while the multitude is clamorous and deceived, perceived in this new work an improvement in diction. In that of *Andromache*, admirable as it is, there was still some traces of youth, some verses which were feeble, incorrect, or neglected. Here every thing carries the impression of maturity. Every thing is masterly, every thing is finished. The conception is vigorous, and the execution without a blemish. Agrippina is represented, as in Tacitus, greedy of power, intriguing, imperious, caring little to live but to reign, employing equally for her purposes the vices, the virtues, and the weaknesses of all who surround her ; flattering Pallas to get possession of Claudius ; protecting Britannicus as a check upon Nero ; making use of Burrhus and of Seneca to soften the ferocious nature which she dreads in her son, and to conciliate popularity to his government which she shares with him. If she interests herself for the consort of Nero, it is from fear that a mistress would have too much influence over him. She even employs the simulation of a maternal tenderness, which she does not feel, to recover Nero, who endeavours to escape from her snares.

I have but one ſon. Oh Heaven, who now hears me !
Have I ever made any vows but for him ?
Remorſe, fear, danger, nothing has reſtrain'd me.
I have conquer'd his contempt ; I turn'd away my eyes
From misfortunes which at that time were announc'd to me.
I have done all in my power : you reign, that is enough.
With my liberty, which you have raviſhed from me,
Take alſo my life, if you wiſh it,
Provided that by my death this exaſperated people
Would not raviſh from you, what has coſt me ſo dear.

This plain and literal translation in prose gives no idea of the original.

Je n'ai qu'un fils : O Ciel, qui m'entends aujourd'hui !
T'ai-je fait quelques vœux qui ne fussent pour lui ?
Remords, craintes, périls, rien, m'a retenue.
J'ai vaincu ses mépris ; j'ai detourné la vue

Des malheurs qui dès lors me furent annoncés.
J'ai fait ce que j'ai pu : vous régnez, c'est assez.
Avec ma liberté que vous m'avez ravie,
Si vous le souhaitez, prenez encore ma vie,
Pourvu que par ma mort tout ce peuple irrité,
Ne vous ravisse pas ce qui m'a tant couté.

What address in these two last lines! She dares not directly threaten Nero : He has already arrested her ; he may proceed farther. He had before explained himself in such a manner, as to make her understand that he was determined to shake off the yoke ; she dreads to excite the tyger to fury. It was to Burrhus that she said a little before : Let him consider,

That by reducing me to the neceſſity
Of exerting againſt him my feeble authority,
He hazards his own, and that, in the balance,
My name perhaps will have more weight than he ſuſpects.

Qu'en me reduisant a la necessité
D'essayer contre lui ma faible autorité,
Il hazard la sienne, et que dans la balance
Mon nom peut-etre aura plus de poids qu'il ne pense.

But it is not to Nero that she dares to say, if you attempt my destruction, have a care of yourself. She contents herself with giving him to understand it, in a manner that cannot offend him, and gives to her menaces the tone of interest and friendship. But scarcely has Nero, who dissembles better than his mother, said to her,

Very well, ſpeak then : what would you have me do?

Eh bien, donc prononcez : que voulez vous qu'on fasse ?

she reassumes all her pride ; as soon as she thinks herself sure of her power, she dictates the law.

Puniſh the preſumption of my accuſers ;
Soothe the reſentment of Britannicus ;
Let Junia take the huſband ſhe chooſes,
Set them both at liberty, and let Pallas remain.

The spring was only constrained ; it acts with greater impetuosity. It is thus that a character shews itself entire upon the stage. And when Junia, constantly agitated with alarms inseparable from love, appears to retain some distrust of the sincerity of Nero, with what haughtiness does Agrippina reproach her.

Are you diffident of a reconciliation that I myſelf have made?

……

It is enough, I have ſpoken to him, and every thing is changed.

Doutez vous d'une paix dont je fais mon ouvrage ?

……

Il suffit, j'ai parlé, tout a changé de face.

Is not this the ordinary policy of all those, who enjoy a borrowed power? One of the means of preserving it, is to make others believe it. The detail, into which she enters with Junia afterwards, has a double effect ; it shews to the spectator the intoxicated pride, to which Agrippina abandons herself in the joy of her new favour, and the profound dissimulation, of which Nero has been capable. I say nothing of the style : it is above all praise.

Ah ! if you had ſeen with how many careſſes
He has renewed to me the ſincerity of his promiſes !
By what embraces he has detained me !
His arms, when we parted, could not ſeparate from me ;
His natural kindneſs, imprinted on his countenance,
Condeſcended to the minuteſt ſecrets.
He poured out his ſoul, like a ſon, who comes with freedom
To forget his pride in the boſom of his mother.
But immediately reſuming a ſevere countenance,
Becoming an emperour when taking council of his mother,
His auguſt confidence put into my hands
Secrets, on which depend the deſtiny of mankind,

Ah ! si vous aviez vu, par combien de caresses
Il m'a renouvellé la foi de ses promesses !

Par quels embrassements il vient de m'arreter !
Ses bras, dans nos adieux, ne pouvaient me quitter.
Sa facile bonté, sur son front répandue
Jusqu'aux moindres secrets est d'abord descendue.
Il s'epanchait en fils, qui vient en liberté
Dans le sein de sa mere oblier sa fierté.
Mais bientôt reprenant un visage severe,
Tel que d'un empereur qui consulta sa mere,
Sa confidence auguste a mis entre mes mains
Des secrets d'ou dépend le destin des humains.

What lofty expressions ! and how are they calculated to give an high idea of her power !

No, we must acknowledge, to his honour,
His heart harbours no dark malice ;
They are our enemies only, who, misrepresenting his goodness,
Have abused, to our disadvantage, the mildness of his nature.
But finally, in their turn, their influence declines ;
Rome once more is about to recognize Agrippina.
Already they adore the reputation of my favour.

Non, il le faut ici confesser à sa gloire,
Son cœur n'enferme point un malice noire ;
Et nos seuls ennemies, alterant sa bonté,
Abusaient contre nous de sa facilité.
Mais enfin, a son tour, leur puissance decline ;
Rome encore une fois, va reconnaitre Agrippine.
Deja de ma favour on adore le bruit.

« They adore the report of my favour" ! What happy boldness in the choice of words ! And this boldness is so exactly measured, that it appears perfectly simple ; reflection alone perceives it : the poet conceals himself under the personage.

Finally, when Britannicus, mortally poisoned, has shewn all that might be expected from Nero, Agrippina, who has no resource remaining, thinks only of terrifying him by her fury,

Go on, Nero : with such ministers
You are in the high road to distinguish yourself by glorious deeds.
Go on : after this step, you cannot return.
Your hand has begun with the blood of your brother ;
I foresee that your strokes will at last reach your mother.
From the bottom of your heart I know that you hate me,
You wish to throw off the yoke of my benefactions.
But I hope that my death will be of no use to you ;
Think not, that, in dying, I shall leave you at your ease.
Rome, these heavens, this light, which you receiv'd from me,
Every where, every moment, will present me before you.
Your contritions will pursue you, like so many furies :
You will think to compose them, by other barbarities.
Your rage, increasing in its course,
Will pollute all your days with fresh streams of blood.
But I hope that heaven, at last weary of your crimes,
Will add your perdition to so many other victims ;
That, after having defiled yourself with their blood and mine,
You will find yourself compelled to pour out your own ;
And your name will appear in all future ages
The severest reproach to the most cruel of tyrants.

Poursuiz, Neron : avec de tels ministres
Par de faits glorieux, tu vas te signaler.
Poursuiz : tu n'a pas fait ce pas pour reculer.
Ta main a commencé par le sang de ton frere ;
Je prévois que tes coups viendront jusqu'a ta mere.
Dans le fond de ton cœur je sais que tu me hais.
Tu voudras t'affranchir du joug de mes bienfaits ;
Mais je veux que ma mort te soit même inutile ;
Ne crois pas qu'en mourant je te laisse tranquille.
Rome, ce ceil, ce jour que tu reçus de moi,
Par-tout, à tout moment, m'offrirant devant toi.
Tes remords te suivront comme autant de furies ;

Tu croiras les calmer par d'autres barbaries.
Ta fureur, s'irritant soi-même dans son cours,
D'un sang toujours nouveau marquera tous tes jours.
Mais j'espere qu'enfin le ciel, las de tes crimes,
Ajoutera ta perte à tant d'autres victimes ;
Qu'apres t'ètre couvert de leur sang et du mien,
Tu te verras forcè de rèpandre le tien ;
Et ton nom paraitra, dans la race future,
Aux plus cruels tyrans une cruelle injure.

Here is an example of that art, so common in Racine, of giving to the strongest ideas the most simple expressions. To tell a man that his name will be a reproach to tyrants, is, of itself terrible ; but to the cruellest of tyrants the most cruel of injuries ! Invective can imagine nothing beyond this, but it is not too much for Nero ; his name is become that of cruelty itself.

What fearful truth is revealed in the portrait of this monster in his infancy ! It is one of the most striking productions of the genius of Racine, and one of those which prove that this great man could do every thing. Nero, as Racine well observes, had not yet assassinated his brother, his mother, nor his preceptor ; he had not yet set fire to Rome ; and yet every thing he says, every thing he does, in the whole course of the piece, announces a soul naturally perverse and atrocious. But how long a time elapsed before the publick acknowledged the prodigious merit of this part ! It was an obligation that they owed at last to the inimitable Le Kain ; and it was the effort of a great actor to bring down to the comprehension of the multitude, what none but connoisseurs had perceived. As the name of Nero seemed to promise every thing the most odious, and during the novelty of Britannicus the heads of the audience were set to the tone, which Corneille had introduced for thirty years, they were astonished, that he had not habitually in his mouth the most infernal maxims ; that he did not glory in his wickedness ; that he betrayed the least shame at being thought a poisoner. In a word, the publick thought him much too good. These are the expressions which Racine uses in his preface : It is true that he has not the rhetorick of crimes ; but he has all the calm and refined atrocity, and all the reflecting, deliberate depth of wickedness. Examine his conduct. He hears the beauty of Junia mentioned ; his first emotion is to carry her off, even before he has seen her ; and upon the bare suspicion, that Britannicus might perhaps be loved by her, his first words are,

So much the more unfortunate for him, if he has gained her affections,
Narcissus, he ought rather to wish for her aversion.
None shall excite jealousy in Nero with impunity.

D'autant plus malheureux qu'il aura su lui plaire,
Narcisse, il doit plutôt souhaiter sa colere.
Nero impunèment ne sera par jaloux.

He has scarcely seen Junia for a moment, when the death of his rival and brother is already resolved in his heart. But he prepares for him another punishment : He will have Junia herself tell him, that he must renounce her ; and to compel her to make this declaration, he declares to her, that Britannicus is a dead man, if she does not obey. It has been said, that it is a trifling incident, and below the dignity of tragedy to make Nero conceal himself, during the interview between the two lovers. This is true : but here, I think, the effect raises and justifies the means. The danger is so near and real, that the scene is tragical, and to prove this I need only appeal to the effect at the theatre. This is the moment, when the love of Britannicus and Junia becomes interesting, because both terrour and pity are then excited by it. Their situation is cruel, and we cannot but tremble for them, when we recollect these terrible words of Nero:

Concealed in some place, I shall see you, madam.
Imprison your love in the bottom of your heart,
You can have no secret language that shall be secret from me.
I shall understand your looks, which you may think mute,
And his destruction shall be the infallible reward
Of a gesture or a sigh that shall escape you to please him.

Cachè pres de ces lieux, je vous verrai, madame,
Renfermez votre amour dans la fond de votre âme.
Vous n'aurez point pour moi des langages secrets,
J'entendrai des regards que vous croirez muets,
Et sa perte sera l'infaillible salaire
D'un geste ou d'un soupir èchappé pour lui plaire.

With this style and this situation any thing may be ennobled. Let it be observed, as we proceed, that a theatrical effect may obtain pardon even for false measure, though it cannot justify them; but a common measure, and one in itself trifling, may be elevated by the art which is employed in disposing it, and is no longer a fault.

To be continued.

REMARKER. *No.* 12.

"Had I the plantation of this isle, my lord,
And were the king of it, what would I do?
I would with such perfection govern, sir,
To excel the golden age."
SHAKESP.

THE office of the Remarker is not confined to speculations on morals and literature, but will occasionally be extended to the delineation of schemes for the whole country. Objects of national concern ought to employ the most active exertions of every individual, and the labours of our statesmen ought to be diminished by the assistance of every citizen, who possesses leisure and ingenuity to devise means of publick safety and private repose.

Since the liberation of our countrymen from the tuition of a cruel stepdame, who fondly hoped that in the decrepitude of age she should be nourished and sustained by our labour and love, our citizens while engaged in lawful commerce have been exposed to violence and impressment. The licensed buccaniers and royal robbers of the ocean have divorced our citizens from their friends and families, and compelled them to exert, in the service of a king, every muscle not palsied by fear of the thong and the scourge. Remonstrance only admonishes them of their power of inflicting still greater injuries, and the specious plea of justification is, that *similarity of language prevents discrimination between Englishmen and Americans*. It is now proposed to strike at the root of the evil, and to construct a language entirely novel. This language must be composed of five parts, viz. one part Indian, another Irish, and three fifths Negro tongue. These ingredients well mixed will constitute a language unintelligible by any human nation from Gades to Ganges. As drivers of herds of cattle sometimes bind a spat across the horns of a fierce bullock to prevent his escape in the thickets of the forest, so will this language debar us from all intercourse with other nations, and will erect a strong wall of partition between us and our adversaries.

Without doubt this plan will be strenuously opposed by those, who are continually declaiming against the subversion of ancient institutions, and the destruction of ancient principles. But it is reasonable that man should pursue a course analogical to that nature, which is a process of continual change, of decay and revival.—Flowers, whose existence is brief, and which flourish only for the scythe, are ever most beautiful and fragrant. Besides, a virtuous republican government induces modes of thought and of action, so different from those produced by a monarchy, that many of the terms of the English language are in this country as insignificant and destitute of meaning, as the representatives of old Sarum are of constituents, and the bold and the original thoughts of Americans perish, as would giants in this pigmy land, because they could not be cooped in our cabins, or covered by our garments. On account of this paucity of terms, adapted to our ideas, most of our authors and holiday orators have been compelled to invent new words, and make our language as various as the face of our country.

It will be perceived, that this new language is the result of a spirit of compromise and conciliation, and that those classes of citizens, which are most numerous, contribute most to its formation. If we inspect the American court calender, we shall immediately ascertain, that in selecting materials for this language, due attention has been paid to the origin and descent of those who guide the destinies of our nation: the most eminent of whom are of Irish or Indian blood. We need not the aid of the college of heralds to trace the lineage of our greatest orator, Randolph, to the renowned Pocahontas...for no sachem among the aboriginals could hurl the tomahawk with more unerring aim, or could, with more adroitness, mangle, and scalp, and lacerate the trembling victims of his wrath. His eloquence is of the whooping kind, and his words, "like bullets chewed, rankled where they entered, and, like melted lead, blistered where they lighted." An ancient author thus describes this species of eloquence: "Magna ista et notabilis eloquentia, alumna licnntæ, quam stulti libertatem vocabant, comes seditionum, effrenati populi incitamentum, sine obsequiis, sine servitute, contumax, temeraria, arrogans, quæ in bene constitutis civitatibus non oritur." The fame and glory of our orators in Congress must be attributed wholly to their knowledge of Indian dialects. Those, who utter English, are fortunately few, otherwise the circumstance of their receiving their tone and language from a foreign court, would subject them to punishment, as it now does to suspicion and disgrace.

The excellencies of the proposed dialect will be numerous; it will not possess the quality of harmony, so that it may be congenial to the nature of our government; and as it will be difficult to be uttered, it will counteract, tumults and seditions, which are usually the effect of sudden and inconsiderate expressions of anger and indignation. Our countrymen, like the wing-footed horses of Phœbus, need restraint, rather than impulse.

> Sponte sua properant; labor est inhibere volentes.

They are not perfect, and no one ought to expect that American citizens should be Gods, till they are nourished by nectar, and breathe æther on Olympus. In forming this language, our great object is to conform to the sacred rights of the majority, and therefore we banish all delicacy and beauty; for he that would move minds that are material, and souls that are sensible, must use instruments ponderous and palpable, otherwise his labour will be as vain and futile as was that of Æneas, when, in the nether world, he instinctively put his hand to the sword, and would have smote the disembodied spirits, "et frustra ferro diverberet umbras."

Republicans, who seek right and follow reason, ever prefer utility to elegance; they use language, as a medium, not as a commodity. The materials, which we have selected, will compose a currency, cumbrous as the iron money of Sparta, and base as the copper coin of Birmingham; but, in its clumsiness and relative baseness, will consist its intrinsick value; for then the cupidity of our merchants will not be tempted to exhaust our country of its circulating medium, neither will the despot of the world exact from us a tribute so debased. If we wished for a language, as a valuable commodity, then indeed our words should resemble "apples of gold set in pictures of silver," which we could use as toys for traffick.

The adoption of this new language will operate very favourably on our foreign relations, and will erect a barrier more powerful than navies, and proclamations, and non-intercourse bills. The policy of our government is not to exhaust the bowels of our country, to afford protection to commerce, which infects the manners of republicans with a thirst for lucre, and love of luxuries; which imports the elegancies of the East, and yellow fever of the West Indies, and supplies silks for our ladies; and slaves for our lords. Though our ports are thronged with merchantmen, richly laden, they receive no other protection, than one gun-boat to each port, "ut unoculus inter cæcos."

When this language shall have become common and universal in our country, we shall be a world by ourselves, and will surround our territory by an impregnable wall of brass, and all sit down, each in his whirligig chair, and philosophize. Then our oaks shall not be ravished from our mountains, and compelled to sport in the ocean with mermaids and monsters of the deep; but they shall be permitted still to wear their green honours, and their foliage, instead of quivering through fear of the axe of the shipwright, shall dance and dally with Zephyrus. Our citizens will then enjoy all the happiness of hermits, and all the tranquillity of monks.

AMUSEMENT.

For the Monthly Anthology.

MESSIEURS EDITORS,

By inserting the following in your Anthology, to exercise the wits of the American literati, you will oblige A SUBSCRIBER.

KEYSLER in his travels relates, that at Casaralta the family of the Volta have a seat where is to be seen the following enigmatical epitaph, which has exercised the wits of the literati for a great number of years.

D. M.
Ælia Lælia Crispis
Nec Vir, nec Mulier, nec Androgyna,
Nec Puella, nec Juvenis, nec Anus,
Nec casta, nec meretrix, nec pudica,
Sed Omnia.
Sublata
Neque Fame, neque Ferro, neque Veneno,
Sed omnibus.
Nec Cœlo, nec Aquis, nec Terris,
Sed ubique jacet.
Lucius Agatho Priscius,
Nec Maritus, nec Amator, nec Necessarius,
Neque mœrens neque gaudens neque flens
Hanc
Nec Molem, nec Pyramidem, nec Sepulchrum,
Sed omnia
Scit et nescit Cui Posuerit.

Under this ænigma are the following lines:

Ænigma
Quod peperit gloriæ
Antiquitas,
Nec periret inglorium
Ex antiquato marmore
Hic in novo reparavit
Achilles Volta Senator.

For the benefit of your readers, unacquainted with Latin, I insert Keysler's translation.

"Ælia Lælia Crispis, who was "neither male, female, nor hermaphrodite; neither a girl, a "youth, nor an old woman; neither chaste, a harlot, nor a modest woman; but was all these. "She died neither by famine, "sword, nor poison; but by all "three. She lies neither in the "air, nor in the water, nor in the "earth; but every where. Lucius Agatho Priscius, who was "neither her husband, nor gallant, "nor relation; neither weeping, "rejoicing, nor mourning, erected "this, which is neither a fabrick, "a pyramid, nor a tomb, but all "three: but to whom he knows "and yet knoweth not.

"That this Ænigma, the invention of ingenious antiquity, might "not be lost by the decay of the "ancient marble on which it was "first engraven, it stands here cut "in fresh characters by order of "Achilles Volta, a Senator."

There have been various explanations of this famous riddle. Mario Michael Angelo will have it to be rain; Fortunius Licetus, the beginning and ending of friendship; John Casper Gevartius interprets it to be love. Zachary Pontinus says it was designed for three persons. Johannes Turrius is of opinion that it is the *materia prima*. Nicholas Barnaud, that is an eunuch, or the philosopher's stone. Agathias Scholasticus, that it is Niobe. Richardus Vitus that it is the rational soul or the *idea Platonis*. Ovidius Montalbanus says it is hemp. Count Malvasia interprets it of a daughter, promised to a person in marriage, who died pregnant with a male child before the celebration of her nuptials. M. de Cigogne Ingrarule has discovered in it Pope Joan. Boxhorn says it is a shadow, and an anonymous person says it is *un petto*.

For the Anthology.

ORIGINAL LETTER.

Birmingham, June 19, 1806.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

YESTERDAY I travelled the whole distance from Buxton to Birmingham (sixty-one miles) in a post-chaise, with a young American born near Portsmouth, and we shall probably keep company till we reach the metropolis, the *urbs sacra*, the city of the gods. This charming country is worth a voyage across the Atlantick to behold. Ceres and Flora must have laid their heads together, I think, to lay it out, and I have found that Thomson's *Summer* is a perpetual commentary upon the road I have been travelling.

Yesterday, about 5 o'clock, P. M. I passed through Lichfield. I purposely delayed dining till this late hour, that I might spend a longer time on this classick ground. As soon as I alighted at the hotel, I inquired for the house where Dr. Johnson was born. I was immediately shown to one about 200 rods off, and I am sure I should not have walked with a quicker step, or with more expectation to see the amphitheatre of Vespasian.

The house, where Johnson was born, stands in the centre of the town of Lichfield, at the corner of a square, within a few paces of the market and the church of St. Mary's, I think. It is now an old three-story building, rather showy without, and rather shabby within. The first apartment on the lower floor, which was the bookstore of Johnson's father, is now a tinker's shop, filled with copper tea-kettles, tin-pans, candle-sticks, &c. while a small room adjoining is occupied by a maker of electrical machines. In the chamber over this shop, once divided into two, that mighty spirit, destined to illuminate the generation which received him, and to exalt our estimate of human capacity, was ushered into this world. This chamber is now, as I imagine, the tinker's drawing room! There remains a small fire-place in one corner, and the walls are hung round with paltry pictures,

> The seasons framed with listing find a place,
> And brave Prince William shows his lampblack face:

The floors are much worn, dirty, and uneven, and every thing within the house bears the appearance of poverty and decay. The tinman, named Evans, was not at home; but his wife, a chatty old woman, told us, in answer to our queries, that the present rent which they paid was eighteen guineas, and that the taxes were as much more. This, to be sure, is quite as much as such a house would be worth in Boston, and nothing but its central situation can render it so high. The old lady then called her little grand-daughter to conduct us to what is called the Parchment house, to which Johnson's father afterwards removed, and to show us the willow tree, of which there is a tradition, that it was planted by Johnson or his father; but nobody knows which. However this may be, it is one of the most remarkable trees in all England. It is certainly twice as large as any willow I ever saw in America, and it is allowed to surpass every other in this country. The tinker's wife told us that her house was frequently visited by travellers, and I dare to say, that the gratuities which she receives for her civilities in showing it, amount at least to the rent of the house. Here is a subject for meditation. A woman is now able to secure a comfortable habitation by showing the chamber where Johnson was born...that Johnson, who has wandered many a night through the streets of London, because he was unable to pay for a lodging!

As we were returning to our inn, we espied a curious figure of an old man, with laced round hat, scarlet coat, with tarnished trimmings of the last age, with a bell under his arm. Upon accosting him, we found that he had been town-crier for many years, and a kind of Caleb Quotem, that he always shaved Dr. Johnson when he came to visit Lichfield, that his name was Jenney, seventy-four years old, with strength and spirits unimpaired.

The cathedral at Lichfield is worthy the attention of every traveller. Who shall say that the daily view of this ancient, dark, and reverend pile, once the residence of monks, may not have contributed to impress on the mind of young Johnson a superstitious veneration for the splendour of a church establishment, and have even given him that melancholy bias, which he discovered toward many of the ceremonies and doctrines of the church of Rome. Indeed I know of nothing so calculated to inspire a secret suspicion of the presence of the departed, as to walk through the long, still, and echoing aisles of a Gothick cathedral, lined on each side with the tombs, and ornamented with the figures of men who died centuries ago; for while you are trembling at the sound of your own steps in these lofty and silent cloisters, and seem to shrink into littleness under the venerable grandeur of the roofs, you can hardly bring yourself to believe that such a vast and solemn structure is uninhabited; and after having heard the great gate close upon your coming out, you cannot avoid the impression, that you are leaving these awful retreats to some invisible and ghostly tenants.

This pile was founded in the year 657. It suffered much in the revolution, and since the restoration they have been continually repairing it. The dean and chapter are now replacing some of the old windows by some painted glass, which they have received from some old church at Liege. It is said to be wonderfully fine, but as I am no connoisseur in these things, I can only say that the colours are wonderfully brilliant. The window at the east end is modern.

Dr. Johnson, and David Garrick, and Gilbert Walmsley have monuments in this cathedral very near to one another. You remember the Latin epitaph which Johnson wrote for his father's tombstone, who was buried here; I know you will hardly forgive the dean and chapter, when I tell you, that in paving the church, they have lately removed it, as well as another, which Dr. J. caused to be placed over the grave of a young woman, who was violently in love with his father. The inscription which Dr. J. wrote, was nothing more than this, "Here lies ——— a stranger, ob. &c." This anecdote I had from the verger, a tattling old man, who showed us the cathedral. He professed to have been "very intimate" (these were his words) with Dr. J. His name is Furneaux.

For the Anthology.

THOUGHTS ON TACITUS.

> *Nam cunctas nationes et urbes populus, aut primores, aut singuli regunt; delecta ex his et consociata reipublicae forma, laudari facilius quam evenire; vel si evenit, haud diuturna esse potest.* TAC. ANN. L. 4. 33.

> If we consider the nature of civil government, we shall find that in all nations the supreme authority is vested in the people, or the nobles, or a single ruler. A constitution, compounded of these three simple forms, may in theory be beautiful, but can never exist in fact; or, if it should, it will be but of short duration.
>
> MURPHY'S TRANS.

IN these words Tacitus has expressed his celebrated opinions on the best form of government for a state. He acknowledges the excellence of a system, in which the three great simple modes of polity should be preserved by a judicious selection and harmonious combination of their constituent advantages. Such a system he decidedly commends, but apparently regrets its probable impracticability, and declares that, if it were practicable, it could not be lasting. These are the sentiments of a profound historian on a subject of real difficulty and extensive importance. They may well occupy our thoughts for a few moments, for the subject is full of "high matter"; and, as connected with the mighty revolutions of the old world in the present age, or with the established constitutions of our own country, it may originate sentiments of regret or exultations of gratitude. In the present speculation, however, I shall not enter into a nice investigation of the excellence of the system recommended by the historian; but I propose, as a subject of literary discussion, to reconcile the implied dissent of Tacitus from the opinions of Polybius, fortified by Machiavel, on the subject of the Spartan constitution founded by Lycurgus.

When Tacitus says, that a form of government, composed of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, is more easily to be praised than anticipated, he very probably had reference to the writings of statesmen and philosophers, by whom this scheme had been discussed and commended. He also plainly intimates, that he did not think that the combination of the original principles had, in any government, been accurately ascertained and suitably established. A man, like Tacitus, of vigorous understanding and practical views, would not easily be reconciled to a visionary excellence of policy, nor would he be disposed to praise a system, which, though in theory it might partake of the simple schemes of political economy, violated in its operation all the feelings, habits, and doctrines of human nature; still less would such a statesman extol any establishment, which found the means of its preservations in the forgetfulness or destruction of whatever renders life pleasant and comfortable to the great majority of the commonwealth.

That Tacitus was a man of these practical notions and principles of expediency, is easily discovered by a perusal of his political and moral maxims and reflections. They have no fancy or frenzy. He very seldom indulges in speculation, and he never relaxes into falseness of conclusion from the violence of passion or the obstinacy of prejudice. Human nature he studied in all its windings and aberrations. He traced the contortions of hypocrisy in the gloomy mind of Tiberius; he examined the gapish idiocy of the drowsy Claudius, and displayed the feeble counsels and the fluctuating conduct of the aged Galba. For this deep knowledge of the human mind, and the necessary practical results, he was not more indebted to the age, which furnished such materials of serious reflection, than to his education and political advantages. He studied law and eloquence under Aper and Secundus, *celeberrima tum ingenia fori;* he married the daughter of Agricola, and by connexion, as well as sympathy, being attached to his father-in-law, he profited from the plans, the counsels, and directions of the illustrious conqueror of Britain. By his political career he was partly fitted for an historian and statesman, as besides what he himself declares, *dignitatem nostram a Vespasiano inchoatam, a Tito auctam, a Domitiano longius provectam,* he also enjoyed the consulate under Nerva, and was honoured with the confidence of Trajan, *optimus & felicissimus Princeps.*

Among the ancient historians and philosophers, whose opinions on the mixture of the three simple forms of government into one harmonious system have reached us, Polybius is highly distinguished. From a fragment of his 6th book, as quoted by Swift, in "The contests and dissensions between the nobles and commons in Athens and Rome," his sentiments may be collected. "Polybius tells us, the best government is that, which consists of three forms, *regno, optimatium,* and *populi imperio.* Such was that of Sparta in its primitive institution by Lycurgus; who, observing the corruptions and depravations to which every of these was subject, compounded his scheme out of all; so that it was made up of *reges, seniores, et populus.* Such also was the state of Rome under its consuls, and the author tells us, that the Romans fell upon this model by chance, but the Spartans by thought and design."

In the political opinion, without the exemplification of its truth in the republick of Sparta, it is evident that Tacitus concurred. He has given no instance of any government, in which he thought the original principles had been combined, so as to conduce to the general welfare of the community; but on the contrary intimates, that no such example can be furnished. No evidence remains, that he had studied the history of Polybius; but there can be little doubt that he had diligently read the very excellent work of a brother historian on the affairs of Rome, who, as a man, had been the intimate friend of Scipio Africanus; and, as an author, had been praised by Livy and Cicero. As therefore Polybius praises the Spartan economy, as an example of his general speculation; and as Tacitus denies that any government has existed, in which *the one, the few, and the many* have been harmonized, I can no otherwise reconcile the difference, than by the supposition, that Polybius had reference simply to the frame of the commonwealth, as built by Lycurgus, and that Tacitus had either some nobler establishment in his mind, or that, like a wise statesman, he disliked the effect of the Lacedæmonian model on the habits, intercourse, and general relations of the people.

From the previous character of Tacitus, as a practical politician, it is evident he must have censured, rather than applauded the singular system of the Spartan legislator. He could not approve of a political plan, which made a whole community barbarous, ignorant, miserable, and proud; and forced the citizens to exist without the elegant refinements or even the comfortable accommodations of society. In Sparta the institutions and laws were, like those in Crete, most severe, and are thus characterised by Maternus in the Dial. de' Orat. *Quarum civitatum severissima disciplina et severissimæ leges traduntur.* In none of the writings of Tacitus does he express any opinion of the policy of Lycurgus, except what may be gathered from the following passage in Ann. 3. 26. '*Hæ primò (leges) rudibus hominum animis, simplices erant. Maximèque fama celebravit Cretensium, quas Minos; Spartanorum quas Lycurgus; ac mox Atheniensibus quaæsitiores jam et plures Solon prescripsit.* "Law in its origin was like the manners of the age, plain and simple. Of the several political constitutionsknown in the world, that of Crete established by Minos, that of Sparta by Lycurgus, and that of Athens by Solon, have been chiefly celebrated. In the latter, however, we see simplicity giving way to complication and refinement." From this passage it cannot be inferred, that Tacitus was particularly averse or attached to the constitution of either legislator, though perhaps a nice reader of Latin might receive from the original an impression more unfavourable to the Spartan establishment, than is given by the weak and dilated translation of Murphy.

It is undeniably true, that Lycurgus mixed the three simple forms into one establishment. It was not indeed perfect. The preservation of the balance of power received no adequate provision. The senate was too powerful; the kings and the Ephori were too weak alone, and the legislator therefore contrived, by the solemnities of religion and the obligation of monthly oaths, to connect the kings and the ephori in alliance; for the former swore to reverence and observe the constitution and laws of Sparta, and the latter, in their own name and as representatives of the people, swore to obey the kings, as rulers, judges, and generals, and to preserve in hereditary splendour the honours and glory of the descendants of Hercules. By these means, but above all by the civil and municipal regulations relative to strangers, marriage, commerce, agriculture, slaves, &c. &c. Lycurgus restrained his community in tranquillity, gained renown for himself, and preserved the hereditary honours of the illustrious race of Hercules for eight hundred years. But the precincts of Sparta never inclosed the habitation of happiness. Every thing was forced, barbarous, and unnatural. Property was violated under the connivance of law, and adultery was sanctioned as the perfection of marriage. The slaves were forced to intoxication for an example to the young Spartans, and their murder was suffered for the incitement of courage and the acquisition of military skill. Study the nature of the Spartan ordinances, read the history of Lycurgus in Plutarch, and you will be astonished at the adoption and continuance of a system, which opposed all the feelings of our common nature, and swept away in its terrible progress all the pardonable prejudices, the amiable sentiments, and the honourable principles of civil life, merely to make giants of the men and Amazons of the women...who should consider war, as the definite object of society, and peace, as the improveable prelude of war.

As Polybius among the ancients, so Machiavel among the moderns, has considered the Spartan constitution as a happy combination of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy. In C. 2, B. 2, of his discourses on the first decade of Livy, this illustrious Italian, after observing that prudent legislators have endeavoured in their political systems to unite the three simple principles, and consequently to avoid the defects of each, proceeds to remark, *tra quelli che hanno per simili costituzioni meritato più laude è Licurgo, il quale ordinò in modo le sue leggi in Sparta, che dando le parte sue ai re, agli ottimati, e al popolo, fece uno stato, che durò più che ottocento anni, con somma laude sua, e quiete di quella città.* Here the immortal founder of modern politicks expressly recognises the division of powers in the system of Lycurgus, which had been before extolled by Polybius; but it may be observed, that his praise is confined to the high renown, which the legislator acquired, to the duration of the scheme, and the tranquillity of Sparta. He does not praise the civil liberty of the citizens, for it did not exist; he does not honour the international policy, for it was full of intrigue, ambition, and war. A civil community ought to have a social relation to other states. It ought to delight in the interchange of such kind offices as its situation will allow, such as mediation in war, commercial intercourse, and every friendly political arrangement. It ought, above all, never to thwart the progress of internal civility; never to stop the increase of social relations and institutions; and never to prohibit the introduction and diffusion of the blessings of peace, commerce, letters, and arts. But in Sparta all intercourse with strangers and all foreign travel were forbidden; there was no trade, and no coin, but ponderous pieces of iron; agriculture was considered an ignominious employment, and was expressly confined to the slaves; the mechanick institutions were despised; literature was unknown to these "museless and unbookish" barbarians; their sole delight was in arms, for war was the study of the men, and warlike exercises the play games of the children. A state, thus insulated from the world, except by the continual disturbances which it excited in other communities, and by the ravage of its arms, which it terribly diffused, might well subsist for eight hundred years; for foreign enemies could make no impression on the city from without, and luxury and wealth could spread no refinements within. Sparta therefore existed in civilised barbarism among the Grecian States, not much superiour to the institutions of the Bedoweens in the African deserts at the present day; these marauders appear on the horizontal sands; they soon cry havock, and spread death and desolation in every village; and when fury is satisfied, they suddenly retire with their spoil to the depth of solitude, meditating new pillage, and anticipating new enemies to conquer.

In giving this relation of the Spartan Commonwealth, I have been guided by no prejudice. No writer will deny to the passive pupils of Lycurgus the virtues of patience, fortitude, heroism, magnanimity, and others of a similar nature. But all these flourish, like palm trees, in a savage community, and when unaccompanied by those qualities or virtues, which exist in a state of refinement, are decisive evidences of a commonwealth barbarous, warlike, and miserable.

As, therefore, Polybius and Machiavel have considered the constitution of Sparta, as a testimonial of the actual union of the advantages of the simple forms of government into one system, and as Tacitus virtually differs from this opinion, by insinuating, that such an union has never existed, I cannot otherwise reconcile these great authorities, but by supposing that the former had reference principally to the constitution itself, and that the latter deduced its nature from the misery of the people, and disregarded the mere form of the institution. Both were right in their several opinions, and the conclusion must be, that the system of Lycurgus, fortified by the code of civil laws and municipal regulations, was really an example of the combination of the original forms of government, that it lasted long and insured tranquillity, but that it was not formed to advance the comforts, the pleasures, and the refinements of society, and that therefore it did not deserve the commendation of Tacitus.

This hypothesis may be praised as more ingenious, than exact, and the discussion may be considered, as more pleasant, than important. But I have never seen any notice of the difference between the historians I have mentioned, and therefore if my conjectures are false, they may easily be pardoned. With regard to the importance of the subject, different readers may form different opinions, but I am disposed to believe that it is always a matter of much concern to reconcile the jarring sentiments of great minds on interesting topicks, for it is surely unpleasant to observe the mighty guides of the world opposed to each other, because their dissension enfeebles their power, while their union gives energy to truth and authority to reason.

QUINTILIAN.

BIOGRAPHY.

....

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, Eng.

[Continued from page 348.]

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.

PLATO, de Legib. IV.

IN the following year a pamphlet appeared, intituled, "*Quaternæ Epistolæ. Prima et secunda ad Richardum Bentleium; Tertia ad illustrissimum Ezekielum Spanhemium, quarta ad Lud. Frid. Bonetum.*" The writer of these letters was Ker, who had not long before published "*Selectarum de Lingua Latina Observationem, Libri duo.*" This performance and its author Bentley had slighted, or treated contemptuously. Ker, in return,

> "Cries havock, and lets slip the dogs
> of war!"

and while his resentment was warm published this *quaternary of Epistles*.

The first of these, which are addressed to Bentley, contains objections to the Latinity of some passages in his dedication and preface to Horace. The purport of the second is similar, and exhibits remarks on the Dr.'s treatment of himself and of former criticks. In these compositions there is some just criticism, but it is mingled with too much ill-nature, and the author's resentment is too apparent. The Latinity is, perhaps§, correct, coldly correct: but the letters merit no commendation for sprightliness of wit, or elegance of language.

Bentley, in all probability, paid little regard to these publications, or to their authors. Whatever might be his private sentiments, he felt the dignity of his character, and the strength of his abilities too forcibly, to think an answer or a defence necessary.

These attacks did not seem to influence his literary pursuits, or damp the ardour of his genius. In the course of this year he published a new edition of his emendations on Menander and Philemon, without altering the name of *Phileleutherus Lipsiensis.* He omitted Burman's preface, and added to these remarks, his Letter to Dr. Mill, which had been published in the year 1691, at the end of the Chronography of Malela.*

Of both these admirable pieces of criticism we have already spoken. We cannot, however, quit them, without expressing some regret, that the corrections of Hesychius, which he mentions in this Letter to Dr. Mill, were never written and published. What additional dignity would the splendid edition of this valuable Lexicon have acquired, when it appeared some years ago, at Leyden, under the auspices of Alberti and Ruhnkenius, if the corrections of Bentley had been added to the remarks of so many learned annotators. His vigorous mind was peculiarly adapted to such a task, both on account of his penetration and his boldness. He knew the depth of his own erudition, and seldom paid any regard to the cavils of inferiour criticks.

About this time appeared a book, intituled "A Discourse of Freethinking, occasioned by the Rise and Growth of a Sect, called Free-Thinkers." The dangerous tendency of this work, which was generally read, determined Bentley to answer it publickly, under his assumed name of Phileleutherus Lipsiensis. He addressed his reply to Dr. Hare, although Collins, the author of the book, had been his pupil. The title was, "Remarks upon a late Discourse of Free-thinking; in a letter to F. H., D. D. by Phileleutherus Lipsiensis."

In the address he compliments Hare upon the care and secrecy with which he conveyed his annotations on Menander to the press, which encouraged him to send him these remarks on Collins.

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§ We say perhaps, for we have not read them with sufficient attention to enable us to speak decisively.

* In this new edition of his *Epistola Critica*, which was his first and, perhaps, his most learned work, the writer of this life observes, that he did not correct the few trifling παροράματα which had escaped him, in the original edition. Among these may be numbered: P. 47. Ιων for ιων. P. 48, in the reference to Atheneus, Lib. XIV. for Lib. X. P. 52. *Undecima Ionis fabula,* should be *decima,* as he has only mentioned *nine* in his disquisitions on Io, the Chian. P. 80, Ευπορώτατον is called *Comparativum* instead of *Superlativum.* *Sed hæc levia fortasse.* In the additions, at the end of this Epistle, the references are very improperly made to the pages of the *old,* instead of the *new* edition. They should have been incorporated into the text, or at least the references should have been altered. It is a strange instance of carelessness, and especially, as in the title he says, *Editio altera emendatior.*

Dr. Salter* has informed us, that Bentley is not serious, when he compliments Hare for his taciturnity and secrecy with respect to the emendations of Menander. He has not, however, declared his authority for such an assertion, and if it was conjecture, there seems no foundation upon which to build such a suspicion. It does not appear, that the delay of the papers was occasioned by any mistake of Hare, or that he ever betrayed the secret. At this time, though they afterwards quarrelled, he almost idolized the Master of Trinity-College ; Scioppius scarcely venerated Scaliger in a higher degree. Why then should Bentley pay him any ironical compliments ?

These Remarks deserve the highest commendation, whether we consider the design or the execution. Those powers of ratiocination, that lively wit, that quickness of imagination, and that penetrating acuteness, which shone so conspicuously in the dissertation on Phalaris, were now again displayed. Ignorance and perversion were never more thoroughly exposed.

These Remarks, and the introductory letter, afforded Dr. Hare an opportunity of publickly demonstrating his regard for Bentley ; and in the course of the year he addressed a pamphlet to him, intituled "The Clergyman's Thanks to Phileleutherus Lipsiensis, &c." in which he urged the author to continue and complete his remarks.

Before the expiration of the year, therefore, appeared the second part of this critique on Collins, with another letter to his friend H. H., in which he assures him, that his request was his only inducement to pursue the subject, as he had many weighty reasons which urged him to remain silent. This publication did not complete his original design; but contains a critical examination of the translations which he gives of his quotations from the ancients.—But Collins did not require so acute an examiner to refute his erroneous assertions. Bentley displays his usual penetration, but the subject sinks beneath him : "The former part of the book (he says in his introductory letter) contained matters of consequence, and gave some play to the answerer ; but the latter is a dull heap of citations, not worked, nor cemented together, mere sand without lime ; and who would meddle with such dry, mouldering stuff, that with the best handling can never take a polish ? To produce a good reply, the first writer must contribute something : if he is quite low and flat, his antagonist cannot rise high ; if he is barren and jejune, the other cannot flourish ; if he is obscure and dark, the other can never shine."

Such is the description which Bentley gives of his situation, when he wrote these remarks. Yet this second part is equal to the former, in point of critical sagacity, and sarcastick ridicule. Nor is it in any degree inferiour with respect to learning, as far as Collins gave scope for a display of his wonderful erudition.

These two parts were universally read and admired. Even his enemies were silent. No caviller dared to attack this admirable performance. Collins forfeited his reputation for learning and abilities, and his book, which had been held up as a model, sunk into obscurity. Eight editions of these Remarks have been published, and he began a third part, at the desire of Queen Caroline, when she was Princess of Wales. Of this only two half sheets were printed, and not much more was written; for Bentley wrote his remarks sheet by sheet, as the copy was wanted by the printer. During his dispute with the University, in 1717, he gave up this design of finishing his observations; nor could he ever be persuaded to resume the subject. At the same time he declared, with great indignation, that those in whose favour he wrote, were as bad as those he wrote against.

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* In his additional notes to the new edition of Bentley's Dissertation on Phalaris, p. 418.

The few pages which are published of this third part contain remarks upon some passages from Lucan, which Collins had quoted, about Cato. It is much to be lamented, that he never finished this piece of criticism, for however trifling was the value of the book, there is such a sprightliness, and wit in his manner of confuting his antagonist, that entertains, while it convinces.

On the fifth of November, 1715, Dr. Bentley preached a sermon* upon Popery, before the University. This deep discourse is replete with erudition, and was calculated for the learned body before whom it was delivered. It, however, afforded an opportunity of beginning a new assault to some of his enemies; who soon after published some remarks on the sermon. This was one of the few attacks which Bentley did not bear in silence. When these petty scribblers criticised his classical erudition, he felt conscious of his superiority. This pamphlet, however, was too scurrilous not to provoke notice, and in 1717 he published an answer, intituled: "Reflections on the scandalous aspersions cast on the Clergy by the Author of the Remarks on Dr. Bentley's Sermon on Popery, &c."

In the year before this, 1716, two letters were addressed to him, respecting an edition of the Greek Testament, for which he had long been collecting materials. These were published with the Doctor's answers, in which the publick were informed, that the Doctor did not propose using any manuscript in this edition which was not a thousand years old; and at the same time added, that he had twenty of this age in his library.

The following year produced a new antagonist. Mr. Johnson, a schoolmaster, at Nottingham, attacked with great virulence, and considerable ability, Dr. Bentley's edition of Horace.†

This publication was delayed by Johnson's illness, but however out of date it might appear, he tells us in a long preface, that he was determined to publish it, because the authors of the former remarks on the Doctor's Horace had not mentioned the most glaring errors.

At the end of the preface, he has collected Bentley's *egotisms*, on the passages in which he has mentioned himself; and after

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[*] This sermon was afterwards published, with his sixth edition of Boyle's Lectures, at Cambridge, 1735.

[†] This is the title of his critique, "Aristarchus Anti-Bentleianus quadraginta sex Bentleii errores super Q. Horatii Flacci odarum libro primo spissos, nonnullos, et erubescendos: item per notas Universas in Latinitate, lapsus fœdissimos nonaginta ostendens."

them his reflections on other writers. Among the former he has inserted several, which have no title to a place in such a collection; and many of the latter are as just, as they are severe.

To follow this writer through all his animadversions would neither be useful nor entertaining. Like most other commentators, he appears to be sometimes right, and frequently wrong, in his criticisms on Horace. He was a good scholar, but an execrable critick. He had not taste enough to discover the value of many of Bentley's conjectural corrections, though his extensive reading enabled him to point out several of the great critick's errors.

In addition to the emendations which we have already transcribed, we must add one or two more:

Horat. Ars Poet. 121.—

Honoratum si forte reponis Achillem,
Impiger, iracundus, &c.

For *honoratum*, Bentley, with a critical sagacity which had been rarely equalled, proposes to read *Homereum*, which Hurd has admitted into the text, in his edition, as indeed he has almost all the readings of the British Aristarchus. "If you insert the character of Achilles, as it is drawn by Homer, into your work, let him be

"Impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer,
Jura neget sibi nata, nihil non arroget armis."

The son of Peleus, indeed, was dreaded on account of his courage, but if we consider his story, we do not find that honours were often showered down upon him. On the contrary, Agamemnon takes away his mistress, Βρισηις καλλιπαρηος, or, as Horace stiles her, Briseis niveo colore; and tho' he had plundered so many cities, yet did the *commander in chief* always carry off the richest spoils; and enjoy the treasures which were acquired by his labours:

—δια παυρα δασασκετο, πολλα δ' εχεσκεν.[†]

In *Serm.* II, *Lib.* 2, *v.* 120, Bentley corrects the punctuation of a passage, in which he supposes that Horace refers to an inedited epigram of Philodemus. Above forty years after, the epigram was published by Reiske, in the Anthology of Cephalas, and confirmed his conjecture. Toup doubts whether the Roman poet conceived the meaning of the epigrammatist; he, howevr, gives the lines, with our critick's emendation, which affords a splendid instance of his acumen, that can never be praised too highly, or too frequently.[‡] But let us proceed.

Some of Johnson's remarks on the Latinity of Bentley's notes are just and acute. They display great knowledge of the language, and insight into the modes of expression adopted by the best Roman authors. But let it not be supposed that our critick is the only modern, who deserves censure on this account. Scioppius wrote a book against the Latinity of Strada, and the learned H. Stephens another of uncommon excellence on that of the great Lipsius. Markland, in more modern times, is not always equally correct in his annotations; and it would be found that even the great Toup, who is the *Coryphæüs* of Grecian literature, in the present age, if his preface to Longinus were examined by a rigid grammarian, can sometimes, as well as criticks of inferiour rank, write inattentively, and adopt

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[†] See Bentley's note on the passage Horat. P. 674. Ed. Amst.

[‡] The author of the preface to the Oxford edition of Cephalas, in a note, mentions this passage, but does not seem thoroughly to conceive the force of Bentley's correction. There is an account also of this celebrated passage in Foster on Accents, which the curious reader may consult.

——— "a style
"So Latin, yet so English all the while."

Why does he use the ambiguous if not unclassical phrase of *Longinum non uno in loco restituimus*, which may mean *not once*, as well as *more than once*? In another place he says, *non semel*. *Publicasse* is used by Pliny, in the sense of *publishing a book*, but, we believe, not by the writers of the Augustan age. *Adeone* often begins a sentence, but not *adeo ut*, which requires a subj. mood after it. Toup is wrong, when he puts an *Indic*. Cicero says: "*Remp. funditus amisimus, adeo ut Cato adolescens nullius consilii——vix vivus effugeret.*" Ad Q. frat. et alibi. In page 4. *Vocat* should be *vocavit*, as the other verbs in the sentence are in the perfect tense. *Ut erat* should be *ut esset.*—Johnson censures Bentley's *alliteratio*, what would he have said to Toup's *in textum**, and to some other slips, which may be discovered in this preface. Do not, however, let it be suspected, that we mean to detract from Toup's splendid abilities, as a critick. He has few readers who look up to him with higher veneration, or who would praise him with more sincerity; but we were willing that his Herculean shoulders should bear some portion of the load which has been placed on those of Bentley.

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* Used by *Am. Marcell.*, but not in the Augustan age, for *the text of a book.*

To be continued.

THE LIBERAL ARTS. No. 2.

For the Anthology.

MR. HUME has asserted, "That it is impossible for the arts and sciences to arise, among any people, unless that people enjoy the blessings of a free government." This, with many other positions assumed as the foundation of his reasoning, inclines one to believe that, in his essays, the primary object was not the discovery of concealed, or illustration of known truths; but rather to exercise his faculties in the construction of plausible theories, and in framing ingenious arguments on controverted subjects. An impartial attention to the history of the rise and progress of arts will convince us, that they depended much more upon other causes than political institutions. They originally arose in Egypt, which was a monarchy, and frequently a very despotic one; from thence they were transplanted to the free states of Greece; from thence to Rome, where they flourished in the time of the Emperours; they were then involved in the same darkness with every other species of human learning and ingenuity, and restored under papal and despotick power in the reign of Leo the Tenth, his immediate predecessor and successor, with the surrounding contemporary potentates. It appears, therefore, more consonant to reason, as well as fact, to lay their foundation in the wants of mankind, and the perfecting of the superstructure to their superstitions, religion, and ambition. Necessity first gave birth to architecsure, which the desire of building suitable habitations for various deities brought to perfection. Sculpture arose from, and was matured by the universal prevalence of polytheism. Painting most probably was principally indebted to the same cause; and when they arose again in Italy, they were cherished, protected by, and it may be said incorporated with the religion of the times, which then possessed the greatest influence over the reason and passions, as well as the temporal estate of man. To describe and illustrate the wonderful events, sublime nature, and important objects of christian theology, was at once the pride, the labour, and the nutriment of historical painting; and the reason why its progress was so long retarded in England may be found in that intolerant bigotry which accompanied the reformation.

It is evident, therefore, that other causes, besides the possession of a free government, are requisite to produce the arts among us; and if we depend on that alone, we shall continue without those sources of intellectual elegance and refinement, to which other nations are indebted for their brightest points of superiority. But seeing that neither our religious nor political institutions are calculated to hold out much inducement, how are we to transplant them into our soil? How shall they be nourished, and be made to produce scyons of native growth? That they may grow, when transplanted, let the soil (as was observed before) be fitted to receive them; for what Hume observes generally, may justly be particularly applied to the imitative arts; that they cannot make much progress, or produce eminent men, except a share of the same spirit and genius be antecedently diffused through the people among whom they arise. The means, by which this spirit may be generated and diffused, it is worth while to consider. The first step, is to induce artists of eminence, or men of genius promising to arrive at eminence, whether foreigners or natives, whenever they appear, by such encouragement, as will make it worth their while to remain and exert their talents in this country: and this encouragement must not only be of a pecuniary nature, but must also consist in that respectful attention, which will give them a due degree of consequence in society; and which, if they possess that elevation of mind which the arts are calculated to inspire, and which they never fail to inspire in men of real genius, will be always esteemed as the most grateful and congenial reward of their labours. It is also equally essential to the adequate compensation of real genius, that all unqualified pretenders should be universally discountenanced; for there are quacks among artists as well as among physicians, and when such persons are able successfully to practice their impositions, the arts themselves suffer a temporary disgrace, and artists of merit are defrauded of their just portion of respectability and profit. Persons, who have laid out their money in what they believed were works of art and exertions of talent, finding themselves imposed upon by gaudy daubings, or the refuse of European auctions, are too often disposed to doubt all they have heard of the dignity of art, and to withhold, indiscriminately, from every professor, that liberality which they once bestowed in vain. This renders it necessary to be able to discriminate between good and bad, between the works of a master and the feeble imitations of a novice, between the vigorous though frequently rude efforts of real genius, and that insipid smoothness, tawdry finery, and mechanical dexterity, which too often assumes its character. To attain this knowledge, is the acquisition of taste.

"What then is taste, but the internal pow'rs
Active and strong, and feelingly alive
To each fine impulse? a discerning sense
Of decent and sublime, with quick disgust
From things deform'd, or disarrang'd, or gross
In species?"

Or, to use the language of an elegant prose writer,* "Taste is the power of selecting the *best*;" hence says he, "its effect is necessarily extended to conduct and character." And he adds this beautiful, and strikingly just remark, "In a polished nation, half the portion of existing vice may be ascribed to bad taste, to the want of that cultivation of the mind, which leads to an habitual preference of the *better* to the *worse*. The invisible sceptre which sways and fixes the morals of a people, is held by the hand of taste."

This faculty is in every person's power to possess, in a greater or less degree, according to the strength & cultivation of his understanding. Those, whose circumstances do not absolutely require all their time to provide the necessaries of life, have sufficient, many have abundant leisure for this purpose; and they who neglect it, not only lose a great and enviable source of rational pleasure, but assuredly leave unperformed a duty to the author of their being, who gave them faculties above the brutes, not to "rust unused," but to be improved by all opportunities to the utmost of their power, that they may be the better enabled to perform the various parts of their character, as it respects their maker, their fellow-creatures, and themselves.

Aug. 24th. E. E.

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* Hoare's inquiry into the cultivation, and present state of the arts in England.

SILVA. No. 18.

Nec cibi cœnarum quivis temerè arroget artem,
Non prius exacta tenui ratione saporum. Hor. Epist.

VOLTAIRE.

It is very difficult to ascertain the truth of particular events in history, or in the lives of celebrated men. The death of Voltaire is an instance of this; names are given, and circumstances mentioned to prove his having demanded a confessor; and, after having expressed his remorse, that he recanted the opinions contained in his works. I was present one evening, in a small circle, at the house of Mr. ——, in Paris. Among the company were the marchioness de Villette, the adopted daughter of Voltaire, whom he used to "belle et bonne," and Mr. Robert, the landscape painter, who was one of his intimate acquaintance. The conversation turned upon Voltaire, and many anecdotes were related. Some person asked madame de Villette, whether the common account of Voltaire's death was true. She answered, that she was with him during his last sickness, and in the room at the time, or a few moments before he died; that he was importuned to receive a confessor, and that his only answer was, "*je* *vous prie de me laisser tranquille*"; and that he died without any confession. That Voltaire should have written against the Catholick religion, may be palliated in considering its excessive abuses; but the vanity of displaying his wit led him much farther, than he probably intended. His opinion of the necessity of a religion may be known from this famous line: "*Si Dieu n'existait pas, il faudrait l'inventer.*"

—

OSSIAN AND HOMER.

There are in Ossian many pleasing passages; but the perpetual recurrence of the same images and a continual effort to effect the sublime, so wearies the mind that I can never read but a few pages at a time. Ossian resembles a tremendous rock, overhung with waving woods, where you may discover foaming cataracts, gloomy caverns, and dismal precipices. Homer is like a fertile country, in which you may at once contemplate the variegated beauties of woods and waterfalls; torrents, which rush with impetuosity from lofty mountains, and streams, which murmur through Arcadian vales. Like the shield of Achilles, the poems of Homer present the whole world to our view.

—

DEFINITION OF MAN.

The best, which has ever been given, is anonymous. "Man is a cooking animal." Disquisitions upon man are among the most abstruse that perplex metaphysicians. Much of the difficulty has arisen from establishing a wrong definition. Men are naturally mad; different individuals approximate in different degrees towards reason. Many are completely mad, none are perfectly rational. Whatever distance some few, more fortunate than the rest, may have passed in the attainment of rationality; still every day of their life will discover some symptoms of their original state. Every man occasionally finds deviations from the path of reason, in every one of his acquaintance, which cannot be accounted for on any other position, than the one I have assumed, that men are naturally mad.

—

PAINTING.

Many circumstances, highly affecting in narration, are glaringly improper for the tablet of the painter. Of this class is the circumstance of the Grecian Daughter affording nutriment to her aged parent. The story is barely tolerable in the hands of the serious dramatist; but on canvas, the figure of an old man, placed in the situation of an unconscious infant, is perfectly disgusting.

—

TASTE.

To assign correct rules for taste is not easier than to give a definition of beauty. It has puzzled polite scholars, metaphysicians, and artists. The standard in different individuals and different nations is widely different. The *gout* of the French varies as much from the *gusto* of the Italians, as from the *taste* of the English, and they are all equally remote from the *onderscheidend vermoogen* of the Dutch. I am led to think, that the most accurate standard will be to decide by taste in eating. A treatise upon the progress of the culinary art would be very interesting. The advances of society towards perfection, and its gradual decline, will be found to keep pace with the advancement and decay of the art of cooking. What a number of gradations between the roaming Tartar, inebriated with fermented mare's milk, and the refined epicurean of polished society, pouring libations of Burgundy and Madeira to beauty or patriotism! Cooking never came nearer to perfection in the Roman empire, than under the emperour Augustus; though, like the Roman manners, it retained something of the barbarity of the republick. It gradually decayed with the decay of letters and the glory of the empire, till the art was buried, with all others, in the obscurity of the middle ages. It rose again into notice, with the revival of letters, under the patronage of the Medici; but attained its greatest perfection in modern Europe, during the brilliant period of Louis XIV. It was in the reign of his voluptuous successor, that scientifick men digested and published its theory and practice in many inestimable volumes. I could enlarge much on this interesting topick, if I did not contemplate publishing at some future day (and hereby give notice to all subject-seeking authors, in the present exhausted state of literature and science) a work with this title, *An inquiry into the progress of civil society, as connected with the culinary art; and an attempt to establish, upon principles drawn from this art, a true standard of taste.*

—

MUSICK.

Modern musick resembles Gothick architecture, whose parts, instead of captivating, puzzle and confound; while the harmonious strains of antiquity, like the Grecian temples, charm by an union of grandeur and simplicity.

—

MANSFIELD AND CHATHAM.

The judgment of the younger Lyttleton is conspicuous in the following brief mention of two very eminent characters. "The two principal orators of the present age, (and one of them perhaps a greater than has been produced in any age) are the Earls of Mansfield and Chatham. The former is a great man, Ciceronian; but I should think inferiour to Cicero. The latter is a greater man; Demosthenian, but superiour to Demosthenes. The first formed himself on the model of the great Roman orator; he studied, translated, rehearsed, and acted his orations. The second disdained imitation, and was himself a model for eloquence, of which no idea can be formed, but by those, who have seen or heard him. His words have sometimes frozen my young blood into stagnation, and sometimes made it pace in such a hurry through my veins, that I could scarce support it. He embellished his ideas by classical amusements, and occasionally read the sermons of Barrow, which he considered a mine of nervous expressions; but, not content to correct and instruct imagination by the works of mortal men, he borrowed his noblest images from the language of inspiration."

—

VANIERE'S PRÆDIUM RUSTICUM.

VANIERE was one of the modern writers of Latin poetry, and a learned Jesuit. His *Prædium Rusticum*, a poem, consisting of sixteen books, on Husbandry, has been too slightly appreciated by Doctor Warton. But Mr. Murphy in the preface of his translation of the sixteenth book, entitled The Bees, vindicates Vaniere with powerful cogency.

His fourteenth Book, which contains the history and management of Bees, was translated by Mr. M. many years ago, when the famous Italian and French writers of Latin poetry engaged his attention; he sometime since revised the translation for his amusement; and he seems to have published it with no other view than that of inscribing it, in very handsome terms, to Miss Susanna Arabella Thrale.

Nature has not, perhaps, produced a more astonishing phenomenon than a kingdom of Bees. It is not surprising, therefore, that the manners, the genius, and all the labours of these wonderful insects, should have engaged the attention of philosophers and poets, from Pliny to Miraldi, who first invented glass-hives; and from Virgil to Vaniere, whose *Prædium Rusticum* might have been immortal had the *Georgics* never been written.

Mr. Murphy, in his Translation, has done ample justice to the Poet, whom he has so ably vindicated.

From an abundance of excellence, to select is difficult. As a specimen, however, we shall transcribe the lines which exhibit these amazing citizens, commencing the labours of the morning :—

As when an army, at the dawn of day,
Marshal their bold brigades in dread array;
The trumpet's clangour ev'ry breast alarms,
And the field glitters with their burnish'd arms.
So the bees, summon'd to their daily toil,
Arise, and meditate their fragrant spoil;
And ere they start, in fancy wing their way,
And in the absent field devour their prey.
No rest, no pause, no stay; the eager band
Rush through the gate, and issue on the land;
Fly wild of wing, a teeming meadow choose,
Rifle each flower, and sip nectareous dews.
For depradation while the rovers fly,
Should some sagacious bee a garden spy,
Or a rich bed of roses newly blown,
Scorning to taste the luxury alone,
She summons all her friends; her friends obey;
They throng, they press, they urge, they seize
their prey;
Rush to the socket of each blooming flow'r,
And from that reservoir the sweets devour;
Till, with the liquids from that source distill'd,
Their eager thirst their honey-bags has fill'd.
Untir'd they work, insatiate still for more,
And viscous matter for their domes explore.
That treasure gain'd, in parcels small and neat
They mould the spoil, and press it with their feet;
Then in the bags, which nature's hand has twin'd
Around their legs, a safe conveyance find.
Nor yet their labours cease; their time they pass
In rolling on the leaves, until the mass
Clings to their bodies, then in wild career,
Loaded with booty, to their cells they steer.
Soon as the spring its genial warmth renews,
And from the rising flow'rs calls forth the dews,
Th' industrious multitude on ev'ry plain
Begin the labours of the vast campaign,
Ere the parch'd meadows mourn their verdure fled,
And the sick rose-bud hangs its drooping head.

POETRY.

ORIGINAL.

For the Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

The following lines are not the offspring of fiction; they were written during the melancholy feelings inspired by the event they record. If not inconsistent with your design, the author would be gratified by seeing them in the Anthology.

"SWEETS TO THE SWEET; FAREWELL."

O'er Beauty's consecrated urn
A pensive stranger wakes the lyre:
Tho' spring the blooming year return,
No wonted joys the verse inspire.

In vain the zephyr's fostering breath
Arrays in charms the vernal hour,
Chill'd by the sudden damps of death,
Untimely droops the loveliest flower.

Yes, shielded from the woes of life
In death's inviolable sleep,
Corroding grief nor passion's strife
Shall cause her radiant eyes to weep.

No more bright Hope's fantastick train,
No more the giant brood of Fear,
Shall hold their fond delusive reign,
Or fright the mind with frown severe.

Vain solace—still the heart must mourn
The lovely form to bliss assign'd,
From warm affection's wishes torn
To long oblivion resign'd.

Unconscious now that matchless face
Of admiration's kindling eye,
O'er-dazzling white, with vivid grace,
Where glow'd young beauty's roseate
dye.

Each charm, those clustering ringlets
shade,
The fates with icy hand destroy,

Bid the dark eye of beauty fade,
And blast the buds of love and joy.

E'en now appear the fleeting hours,
In which thine image met my sight,
As, round the couch, when fancy pours
The sweet illusions of the night.

Yet, if the poet's wish avails,
Those hours in memory's page shall last,
Long as his musing spirit hails
The faded pleasures of the past.

And oft as genial June the rose,
The fragrant emblem of thy bloom,
In summer beauty shall disclose,
His heart shall mourn thine early doom.

June, 1806. M.

For the Anthology.

TO THE
PROCELLARIUS PELAGICUS.*

"Vel mare per medium fluctu suspensa tumenti
Ferret iter, celeres nec tingeret æquore plantas."
VIRG.

THOU little wand'rer, flitting round our stern,
So far from land, how can'st thou e'er return,
Thou hast no means, or none that I discern,
To travel here?
Few tempt the perils of the stormy deep,
Till fame, or fortune, all their senses steep,
But you, with thankless toil, still idly sweep,
Where'er we steer.

How few dare change their home and happy hours,
Where Love and Friendship weave their rival flowers,
Save the pale exile from Hygeia's bowers,
For this rude place.
Yet thou, nor fortune, fame, nor want constrain,
To quit the rural realm, and peaceful plain,
For ocean's barren, cold, and wild domain,
Without a base!

Say, can'st thou slumber mid these billowy vales,
Torn up to mountain summits by the gales,
When we are driv'n with close contracted sails,
In tempests tost?
Then farewel, happiest wand'rer of the wave.
Thy lesser wings the whelm'ning storm shall brave,
When our proud bark no human skill can save,
And all is lost!

&c.

PARALLELS—continued.

……

THE PARASITE.

………………O! your parasite
Is a most precious thing, dropt from above;
Not bred 'mongst clods and clot-pouls, here on earth.
I muse, the mystery was not made a science,
It is so liberally profest! almost
All the wise world is little else, in nature,
But parasites, or sub-parasites. And, yet,
I mean not those that have your bare town-art,
To know, who's fit to feed 'em; have no house,
No family, no care, and therefore mould
Tales for men's ears, to bait that sense; or get
Kitchen-invention, and some stale receipts
To please the belly, and the groin; nor those,
With their court-dog tricks, that can fawn and fleer,
Make their revenue out of legs and faces,
Eccho my lord, and lick away a moth:
But your fine elegant rascal, that can rise,
And stoop (almost together) like an arrow,
Shoot through the air as nimbly as a star;
Turn short, as doth a swallow; and be here,
And there, and here, and yonder all at once;
Present to any humour, all occasion;
And change a visor, swifter than a thought!
This is the creature had the art born with him,
Toils not to learn it, but doth practise it
Out of most excellent nature: and such sparks
Are the true parasites, others but their Zani's.

BEN JONSON.

Studious to please, and ready to submit,
The supple Gaul was born a parasite;
Still to his int'rest true, where'er he goes,
Wit, brav'ry, worth, his lavish tongue bestows;
In ev'ry face a thousand graces shine,
From ev'ry tongue flows harmony divine,
These arts in vain our rugged natives try,
Strain out with fault'ring diffidence a lie,
And get a kick for awkward flattery.
Besides, with justice, this descending age
Admires their wond'rous talents for the stage:
Well may they venture on the mimick's art,
Who play from morn to night a borrow'd part;
Practis'd their master's notions to embrace,
Repeat his maxims, and reflect his face;
With ev'ry wild absurdity comply,
And view each object with another's eye;
To shake with laughter ere the jest they hear,
To pour at will the counterfeited tear;

……

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* The Procellarius Pelagicus, or Stormy Petrel, better known to the mariner as one of "Mother Carey's chickens," is a small bird about six inches in length, and in the extent of its wings, thirteen. It is wholly black, except the covert of the tail, and vent-feathers, which are white; the bill is hooked at the end; the nostrils tubular; its legs slender and long. In the Ferrol Isles this bird sometimes serves the purpose of a candle, by drawing a wick thro' its nostrils, from which it possesses the quality of spouting oil. It is seen all over the Atlantick ocean at the greatest distance from land. In tempests, of which it is said to warn the seaman by collecting under the stern of his vessel, it skims over the tops of the billows with incredible velocity. These birds are the "Cypselli" of Pliny, which he places among the apodes of Aristotle; not because they wanted feet, but were Κακοποδα.

And, as their patron hints the cold or heat,
To ſhake in dog-days, in December ſweat.
JOHNSON.

Live loath'd, and long,
Moſt ſmiling, ſmooth, deteſted paraſites,
Courteous deſtroyers, affable wolves, meek bears,
You fools of fortune, trencher-friends, time's flies,
Cap and knee ſlaves, vapours and minute-jacks!
Of man and beaſt the infinite malady
Cruſt you quite o'er.
SHAK.

MELANCHOLY.

——O'er the twilight groves and duſky caves,
Long-ſounding iſles, and intermingled graves,
Black Melancholy ſits, and round her throws
A death-like ſilence, and a dread repoſe;
Her gloomy preſence ſaddens all the ſcene,
Shades every flower, and darkens ev'ry green,
Deepens the murmur of the falling floods,
And breathes a browner horror on the woods.
POPE.

With eyes up-rais'd, as one inſpir'd,
Pale Melancholy ſat retir'd,
And from her wild ſequeſtered ſeat,
In notes by diſtance made more ſweet,
Pour'd through the mellow horn her penſive ſoul,
And daſhing ſoft from rocks around,
Bubbling runnels join'd the ſound;
Through glades and glooms the mingled meaſure ſtole,
Or o'er ſome haunted ſtreams with fond delay,
Round an holy calm diffuſing,
Love of peace and lonely muſing
In hollow murmurs dy'd away.
COLLINS.

Hence, loathed Melancholy,
Of Cerberus, and blackeſt midnight born,
In Stygian cave forlorn,
'Mongſt horrid ſhapes, and ſhrieks, and ſights unholy,
Find out ſome uncouth cell,
Where brooding darkneſs ſpreads his jealous wings,
And the night-raven ſings;
There under Ebon ſhades, and low-brow'd rocks,
As ragged as thy locks,
In dark Cimmerian deſert ever dwell.

Come, penſive nun, devout and pure,
Sober, ſteadfaſt, and demure,
All in a robe of darkeſt grain,
Flowing with majeſtick train,
And ſable ſtole of cypreſs lawn,
Over thy decent ſhoulders drawn.
Come, but keep thy wonted ſtate,
With ev'n ſtep and muſing gait,
And looks commercing with the ſkies,
Thy rapt ſoul ſitting in thine eyes;
There held in holy paſſion ſtill,
Forget thyſelf to marble, till
With a ſad, leaden, downward caſt,
You fix them on the earth as faſt.
MILTON.

WINTER.

Oh Winter, ruler of th' inverted year,
Thy ſcatter'd hair, with ſleet like aſhes fill'd,
Thy breath congeal'd upon thy lips, thy cheeks
Fring'd with a beard made white with other ſnows
Than thoſe of age, thy forehead wrapt in clouds,
A leafleſs branch thy ſceptre, and thy throne
A ſliding car, indebted to no wheels,
But urged by ſtorms along its ſlipp'ry way,
I love thee, all unlovely as thou ſeem'ſt,
And dreaded as thou art!
COWPER.

When Froſt and Fire with martial powers engag'd,
Froſt, northward, fled the war, unequal wag'd!
Beneath the pole his legions urg'd their flight,
And gain'd a cave profound and wide as night.
O'er cheerleſs ſcenes by Deſolation own'd,
High on an Alp of ice he ſits enthron'd!
One clay-cold hand his chryſtal beard ſuſtains,
And ſcepter'd one, o'er wind and tempeſt reigns;
O'er ſtony magazines of hail, that ſtorm
The bloſſom'd fruit, and flowery Spring deform.
His languid eyes like frozen lakes appear,
Dim gleaming all the light that wanders here.
His robe ſnow-wrought, and hoar'd with age; his breath
A nitrous damp, that ſtrikes petrifick death.
SAVAGE.

FAME.

Open your ears: for which of you will ſtop
The vent of hearing, when loud Rumour ſpeaks?
I, from the orient to the drooping weſt,
Making the wind my poſt-horſe, ſtill unfold
The acts commenced on this ball of earth:
Upon my tongue continual ſlanders ride;
The which in every language I pronounce,
Stuffing the ears of men with falſe reports.
I ſpeak of peace, while covert enmity,
Under the ſmile of ſafety, wounds the world:
And who but Rumour, who but only I,
Make fearful muſters, and prepar'd defence?
Whilſt the big year, ſwoll'n with ſome other grief,
Is thought with child by the ſtern tyrant war,
And no ſuch matter? Rumour is a pipe
Blown by ſurmiſes, jealouſies, conjectures:
And of ſo eaſy and ſo plain a ſtop,
That the blunt monſter with uncounted heads,
The ſtill-diſcordant wavering multitude,
Can play upon it.
SHAK.

Fame, the great ill, from ſmall beginnings grows.
Swift from the firſt; and every moment brings
New vigour to her flights, new pinions to her wings.
Soon grows the pigmy to gigantick ſize;
Her feet on earth, her forehead in the ſkies:
Enrag'd againſt the gods, revengeful earth
Produc'd her laſt of the Titanian birth.
Swift in her walk, more ſwift her winged haſte;
A monſtrous phantom, horrible and vaſt;
As many plumes as raiſe her lofty flight,
So many piercing eyes enlarge her ſight;

Millions of opening mouths to Fame belong;
And every mouth is furniſh'd with a tongue:
And round with liſtening ears the flying plague is
hung.
She fills the peaceful univerſe with cries;
No ſlumbers ever cloſe her wakeful eyes.
By day from lofty towers her head ſhe ſhews:
And ſpreads, through trembling crowds, diſaſtrous
news.
With court-informers haunts, and royal ſpies,
This done relates, nor done ſhe feigns; and mingles truth with lies.
Talk is her buſineſs; and her chief delight
To tell of prodigies, and cauſe affright.

DRYDEN.

There is a tall long-ſided dame,
(But wond'rous light) ycleped Fame,
That, like a thin camelion, boards
Herſelf on air, and eats her words:
Upon her ſhoulders wings ſhe wears
Like hanging ſleeves, lin'd through with ears,
And eyes, and tongues, as poets liſt,
Made good by deep mythologiſt.
With theſe ſhe through the welkin flies,
And ſometimes carries truth, oft lies;
With letters hung like eaſtern pigeons,
And Mercuries of furtheſt regions,
Diurnals writ for regulation
Of lying, to inform the nation;
And by their publick uſe to bring down
The rate of whetſtones in the kingdom.
About her neck a pacquet-male,
Fraught with advice, ſome freſh, ſome ſtale,
Of men that walk'd when they were dead,
And cows of monſters brought to bed;
Of hail-ſtones big as pullets eggs,
And puppies whelp'd with twice two legs;
A blazing-ſtar ſeen in the weſt,
By ſix or ſeven men at leaſt.
Two trumpets ſhe does ſound at once,
But both of clean contrary tones;
But whether both with the ſame wind,
Or one before and one behind,
We know not; only this can tell,
The one ſounds vilely, th' other well;
And therefore vulgar authors name
Th' one Good, the other Evil, Fame.

HUDIBRAS.

FAIRY LAND.

THERE, muſt thou wake perforce thy Doric quill;
'Tis Fancy's land, to which thou ſett'ſt thy feet,
Where ſtill, 'tis ſaid, the Fairy people meet,
Beneath each birken ſhade on mead or hill.
There, each trim laſs, that ſkims the milky ſtore,
To the ſwart tribes their creamy bowls allots;
By night they ſip it round the cottage-door,
While airy minſtrels warble jocund notes.
There, every herd, by ſad experience, knows
How wing'd with fate, their elf-ſhot arrows fly
When the ſick ewe her ſummer food foregoes,
Or ſtretch'd on earth, the heart-ſmit heifers lie.
Such airy beings awe the untutor'd ſwain:
Nor thou, though learn'd, his homelier thoughts
neglect;
Let thy ſweet Muſe the rural faith ſuſtain;
Theſe are the themes of ſimple, ſure effect,
That add new conqueſts to her boundleſs reign,
And fill, with double force, her heart-commanding ſtrain.

COLLINS.

There is an old tale goes, that Herne the hunter,
Sometime a keeper here in Windſor foreſt,
Doth all the winter time, at ſtill midnight,
Walk round about an oak, with great ragg'd
horns;
And makes milch-kine yield blood, and ſhakes a
chain
In a moſt hideous and dreadful manner:
You have heard of ſuch a ſpirit: and well you
know,
The ſuperſtitious idle-headed eld
Receiv'd, and did deliver to our age,
This tale of Herne the hunter for a truth.

SHAK.

TO THE HERB ROSEMARY. BY HENRY KIRKE WHITE.

Sweet scented flower! who'rt wont to
bloom
On January's front severe,
And o'er the wint'ry desert drear
To waft thy waste perfume!
Come, thou shalt form my nosegay now,
And I will bind thee round my brow,
And as I twine the mournful wreath,
I'll weave a melancholy song,
And sweet the strain shall be, and long,
The melody of death.

Come fun'ral flow'r! who lov'st to dwell
With the pale corse in lonely tomb,
And throw across the desert gloom,
A sweet decaying smell.
Come press my lips, and lie with me
Beneath the lowly alder tree,
And we will sleep a pleasant sleep,
And not a care shall dare intrude
To break the marble solitude,
So peaceful, and so deep.

And hark! the wind-god as he flies
Moans hollow in the forest trees,
And sailing on the gusty breeze
Mysterious musick dies.
Sweet flow'r, that requiem wild is mine,
It warns me to the lonely shrine,
The cold turf altar of the dead;
My grave shall be in yon lone spot,
Where as I lie by all forgot,
A dying fragrance thou wilt o'er my
ashes shed.

THE BOSTON REVIEW.

AUGUST, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 38.

Volume I. Part I. of The New Cyclopedia, or Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, formed upon a more enlarged plan of arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers; comprehending the various articles of that work, with additions and improvements; together with new subjects of biography, geography, and history; and adapted to the present state of literature and science. By Abraham Rees, D. D. F. R. S. editor of the last edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary, with the assistance of eminent professional gentlemen. Illustrated with new plates, including maps, engraved for the work by some of the most distinguished artists. First American edition, revised, corrected, enlarged, and adapted to this country, by several literary and scientifick characters. 4to. Price of the half volume to subscribers $3. Philadelphia, printed by R. Carr for Samuel F. Bradford.

The character of Dr. Rees' Cyclopedia, as far as the volumes have been published, is so well known from the various English Reviews, which are regularly received in this country, that it would seem in a degree impertinent for us to enter into a formal examination of its merits. It will be more decorous in the young criticks of the New World, though to some members of the republick of letters (which like other republicks has its jacobins) it may appear slavish, to bow with deference to the judgment of the literary veterans of the Old Continent, who have, with few exceptions, expressed their warm approbation of the general execution of this work; and to this opinion we do, after an attentive perusal of the most important articles, very cheerfully subscribe.

We shall therefore confine our remarks chiefly to a comparison of the *American* with the *English* edition, and to the correction of such typographical and other errors, as we have been able to detect in either. And here we take pleasure in imparting to our readers, how much satisfaction we felt on the first view of the *American* edition, at the decisive and honourable testimony which it bore to the flourishing state of the arts of *printing* and *engraving* in our country. It is one of the few *American* editions, which, we can with truth say, is not surpassed by the *English*. Nor will we restrict our commendation to the *mechanical* execution of the volume before us; we have found useful additions made to some of the articles, which we shall take notice of in another part of our Review. But here commendation must stop; for, to adopt an old sentiment, though we love our *countrymen* much, we love truth more ; and truth compels us to declare....that this American edition of the Cyclopedia appears to be, at least in respect to the original editors of it, in some degree, a literary fraud. How far the publisher, Mr. Bradford, holds himself responsible for the contents of this edition, we do not know ; but we must say, that *the manner* in which it is to be conducted, judging from the present half-volume, throws no trifling weight of responsibility upon the gentlemen in this country, who superintend the editorial department ; a responsibility, which we hope has not been the only motive for keeping their names from the publick. Strong as this language may appear, we trust the impartial reader will be satisfied, that it is not stronger, than is warranted by the facts, which we shall presently exhibit.

The prospectus informs us, that the *English* edition is published under the direction of Dr. Rees, the learned divine, whose name the work bears ; and that he is assisted by about forty other distinguished European literary gentlemen, whose names are given to the publick, and who therefore stand pledged for the faithful execution of the work, and (what is of not less importance) for *the principles maintained in it.*

Such is the work which the American publisher recommends to his subscribers ; a work, " the execution of which (to use the language adopted by him) is *guaranteed* by the respectable names," which he gives to the public from the English advertisement. Not content, however, with servilely *copying* the London edition, he promises, with a very commendable spirit of patriotism, " *amendment* and *addition* in those parts, " at least, which relate to the United States," and informs us, that " he " has engaged the assistance of gentlemen, whose talents and celebrity " do honour to their country, and will essentially enrich this important " work." These were the editor's *promises*, and they were probably dictated by patriotism as well as interest, and, we have had the charity to believe, were made with the sincere intention of fulfilling them. Yet (it is painful, but we must make the inquiry) how have these promises been fulfilled ? Why, either by the most unfortunate misconception of the nature of his undertaking, or, what we are loth to believe, by a most daring disregard of his word, he presents the first half-volume to the publick almost without a single claim to patronage on the principal ground, upon which it had been recommended ; we mean,....that it was to be a work *guaranteed* by the authority of Dr. Rees and his able coadjutors. The American editors must know, that it *is not* a work thus guaranteed ; it is not a work resting upon the reputation of able and responsible European literati, who have not been afraid to give their names to the publick, as a pledge for the faithful performance of their undertaking. It is not, in short, " Dr. Rees' Cyclopædia," but the Cyclopedia of Drs. X, Y, and Z, of Philadelphia, New-York, &c. So far is it from being Dr. *Rees'* work, that we can point out parts of it, which are palmed upon the publick as his, that are directly in contradiction with what that gentleman has published in his own edition ; sentiments which that learned divine, we venture to say, would not only disown, but would think it his duty to counteract by all the justifiable means in his power. No, this edition is the work of unknown and irresponsible " literary scientifick characters" (we take Mr. Bradford's word for the literature and science of the gentlemen) in our own country.

The publisher has thus, by a strange fatality, if it was unintentional, completely destroyed what he had just before held out to his patrons, as one of the great excellences of this work....the authority it derived from the known talents and responsibility of the European gentlemen, who are engaged in it.

The only mode, in which the *authority* (and, *we* should say, the chief value) of the work could be preserved, would have been to distinguish, by some obvious mark, every *addition* or *variation* in the *American* edition. We shall be told perhaps, that this is already done *in part*; this surely cannot be denied, but we must be allowed to add, that this *partial* designation is as mischievous as none at all, because some of *the most material* alterations are made, without being thus distinguished.

The first article of importance, which has attracted our attention, is the life of the celebrated ABERNETHY. As this article is a fair specimen of the manner in which other parts of the work are mutilated, we shall exhibit it pretty much at large; and this will render a minute examination of many others unnecessary. We shall place the extracts from the two editions in opposite columns, and distinguish the variations by *italicks*.

American edition.	*English edition.*
ABERNETHY JOHN. In 1703, after having been for some years at Dublin with a view to farther improvement he was ordained at Antrim; where his publick performances were much admired, and where his general conduct and distinguished attainments recommended him to the esteem of all who knew him. In 1716, &c.	In 1703, after having been for some years at Dublin with a view to farther improvement he was ordained at Antrim; where his publick performances were much admired, and where his general conduct and distinguished attainments recommended him to the esteem of all who knew him. *He was much respected not only by his brethren in the ministry, but by many of the laity, who were pleased with the urbanity of his manners. His talents and virtues gave him a considerable ascendency in the synod, so that he had a large share in the management of publick affairs. As a speaker he was considered as their chief ornament; and he maintained his character in these respects and his interest in their esteem to the last, even when a change of his religious sentiments had excited the opposition of many violent antagonists.* In 1716, &c.
The interference of this assembly was repugnant to those sentiments which Mr. Abernethy had been led to entertain by an attention to the BANGORIAN controversy, which prevailed in England about this time. Many other ministers in the North of Ireland, by means of the writings of Dr. Hoadly and his associates adopted opinions similar to those of Mr. Abernethy. They instituted a society whose professed aim was to bring things to the test of reason and scripture. This design was probably suggested by Mr. Abernethy. &c.	The interference of this assembly was repugnant to those sentiments of *religious freedom* which Mr. Abernethy had been lead to entertain *by the exercise of his own vigorous faculties and* by an attention to the BANGORIAN controversy which prevailed in England about this time. Many other ministers in the north of Ireland, *formed more enlarged ideas of christian liberty and charity than they had been accustomed to do* by means of the writings of Dr. Hoadly and his associates. *With a view to the improvement of useful knowledge* they instituted a society whose professed aim was to

American edition.	*English edition.*
[illegible]	bring things to the test of reason and scripture. This laudable *design* was probably suggested by Mr. Abernethy. &c.
Again— Mr. Abernethy was justly considered as the head of the non-subscribers; and he became of course a principal *subject of censure and discipline.*	Mr. Abernethy was justly considered as the head of the non-subscribers, and he became of course *a principal object of reproach and persecution.*
In an early period of this controversy, viz. in 1719, he published a sermon from Romans xiv. 5. in which he *professed to explain* the rights of private judgment and the foundations of christian liberty.	In an early period of this controversy, viz. in 1719, he published a sermon from Romans xiv. 5. in which *he explained* the rights of private judgment and the foundations of christian liberty.
From that time the excluded members formed themselves into a separate Presbytery. Mr. Abernethy found that *his former reputation was no security to him against the evils which he was now to experience.*	From that time the excluded members formed themselves into a separate Presbytery, and prepared to encounter *many difficulties and hardships.* Mr. Abernethy found that *his justly acquired reputation, which he had uniformly maintained by a most exemplary life, was no security to him against these evils.*
Again— He continued his labours in Wood-street for ten years. But a sudden attack of the gout in the head, to which disorder he had been subject, frustrated the expectations of his friends, and he died December 1740, in the 60th year of his age. Mr. Abernethy was twice married; first soon after his settlement at Antrim, to a lady of excellent character, of whom he was deprived in 1712, and again after his removal to Dublin, another lady, with whom he lived to his death.	He continued his labours in Wood-street for ten years, *and enjoyed great satisfaction in the society and esteem of his friends. From the strength of his constitution, the vigour of his spirit, and the uniform temperance of his life, there was reason to hope that his usefulness would have been prolonged.* But a sudden attack of the gout in the head, to which disorder he had been subject, frustrated the expectations of his friends and he died Dec. 1740, in the 60th year of his age. *For this event he was fully prepared, and he met it with great composure and firmness of mind, a cheerful acquiescence in the will, and a fixed trust in the power and goodness of the Almighty.* Mr. Abernethy was twice married; first soon after his settlement at Antrim to a lady of excellent character, of whom he was deprived in 1712; and again, after his removal to Dublin to another lady with whom *he lived in all the tenderness of conjugal affection* to his death.
Again— The most celebrated of Mr. Abernethy's writings were his two volumes of Discourses of the Divine Attributes, which were much admired at the time of their publication and honourably recommended by *the late archbishop Herring.* Four volumes, &c.	The most celebrated of Mr. Abernethy's writings were his two volumes of Discourses of the Divine Attributes which were much admired at the time of their publication and honourably recommended by the late *excellent* archbishop Herring; *and are still held in the highest esteem by those who are disposed to approve the most liberal or manly sentiments on the great subject of natural religion.* Four volumes, &c.

Again—

American edition.	*English edition.*
He also left behind him a Diary of his life, consisting of six large volumes in 4to. of which the author of his life has given a large account, and from which he has made many extracts. Biog. Brit.	He also left behind him a Diary of his life, consisting of six large volumes in 4to. of which the author of his life has given a large account, and from which he has made many extracts *which bear ample testimony to the singular excellence of his disposition and character.* Biog. Brit.

Taking this whole article together, and comparing it with the real character of Abernethy, as attested by the united voices of biographers, we do not recollect a more insidious attempt to rob the defenceless dead of a well-earned reputation, and to exhibit a mere corpse of character (if we may use the expression) stripped of all animation and of every positive quality, than here discovers itself. If it was of importance to know any one circumstance of Abernethy's life, it surely was so to be distinctly informed, that his excellent heart, as well as head, secured him the esteem of all to the last, "even when a change of his religious sentiments had excited the opposition of many violent antagonists." Yet the paragraph, which expressly exhibits this part of his character, is expunged from the American edition! If, too, it was of consequence to know, that Mr. Abernethy's "*sentiments*" differed from many who were around him, we ought to be informed *what* sentiments are alluded to. Yet the American editors, instead of informing us that they were "*sentiments of religious freedom*," (as is done in the original) suppress these last words, and leave us to infer what sentiments are intended, from our acquaintance with the *Bangorian controversy*: a controversy, of which, we venture to say, not one reader in a hundred knows any thing. Nor is this all:—the English work tells us, that these sentiments were not merely the result of his attention to the Bangorian controversy (which makes them in a degree the consequence of party-bias), but also "*of the exercise of his own vigorous faculties.*" This last, and, we should say, this material circumstance if A.'s authority is to have any weight on these questions, is wholly suppressed in the American edition!

Our second extract from the *English* edition says: "this *laudable* design [of bringing things to the test of reason and scripture] was probably suggested by Mr. Abernethy." What could be more unexceptionable than this expression? What, we ask every liberal man, can be more *laudable* than "to bring things to the test of reason and scripture"? Do they then really mean to insinuate, that reason and scripture are not to be the test of things? If so, what must we think of the *principles* of the men, who conduct this new edition of the Cyclopedia, and of the manner, in which they intend to republish the work? Yet our American editors expunge the word *laudable*, and leave us to presume, that, in their judgment, such a design was *not laudable*.

In the next extract the latter part of the sentence, which speaks of Mr. A.'s "justly acquired reputation," is partly altered and partly suppressed. Instead of fairly presenting to the reader, what kind of reputation Mr. A. enjoyed and how long he had maintained it, they just tell us coldly of his "*former* reputation." Gracious heaven! is this the treatment deserved by this eminent man? is this history? is this biography?

But the first of our two last extracts discovers more of the motives and temper of the American editors, than any of the preceding. They suppress the passage, expressive of the high estimation, in which Abernethy's works are said to be held at this day; and though they admit that *formerly* these works were *honourably* recommended by archbishop Herring, yet, apparently lest the reader should think the archbishop's recommendation was worth something, they do not forget to strip the venerable prelate of a little epithet (the epithet "excellent"), which liberality would allow after death to any man, who possessed a little more than common honesty and common abilities.

One more remark shall finish what we have to say upon the highly reprehensible manner, in which this article is republished. The important words of the last extract, which mention *the singular excellence* of A.'s *disposition and character*, are wholly suppressed in the American edition. And yet, after such unwarrantable mutilations,...such criminal supprespressions of historical facts,...these gentlemen cite the *Biographia Britannica*, as their authority!

To be continued.

ART. 39.

The Enchanted Lake of the Fairy Morgana. From the Orlando Inamorato of Francesco Berni. New-York. Riley & Co. 1806. 8vo. *pp.* 67.

In reviewing so singular a production, as an American translation of an episode in the Orlando Inamorato of Berni, we are obliged to confess the difficulty of procuring suitable assistances to the task of criticism. This obstacle we have formerly stated, and we are again called upon to acknowledge its continuance. We have inquired, but in vain, for the poem of Bolardo, and its *refaccimento* by Berni; and we have not been able to procure the subordinate auxiliaries of Crescembini and Tiraboschi. Of course, we were forced to consult the accessible authorities of other writers, who merely reflect a feeble heat and cast a faint illumination on the decaying poetry of an Italian author, once highly distinguished. These circumstances demand an attention to the state of our publick libraries; they exact the solicitude of men of riches and rank, to promote the establishment of large collections for the service of literature. The patrons of learning should be found among the favourites of fortune and the dispensers of power. If these cannot settle pensions, or bestow offices, they can at least accelerate the progress of knowledge, and direct its exertions, by exhibiting, what has formerly been ascertained, to the researches of the literary missionary. Poetry may continually delight in the study of nature, may find 'sermons in stones, and books in the running brooks'; but scientifick criticism must dwell in the cabinets of the curious, and range through the alcoves of literature.

The work we are about to review is a translation from the poetry of an old Italian author, now little known. In this country it may well be considered a singular production, and therefore we shall make no apology to our readers for introducing the review of it by some account of the life of Berni, of his character as an author, and of the Italian heroick poetry as connected with him; and we shall also offer a few remarks on the expediency of a complete translation of his Orlando Inamorato. Indeed we feel justified in pursuing this course, because it is necessary in order to render intelligible any criticism of 'the Enchanted Lake.' Besides, we poor reviewers are so often obliged to traverse barren ground, where not even an heath flower blooms, that we willingly turn aside into a foot-path, which may lead to cool waters and bowers of enchantment.

Francesco Berni, the Italian poet, was born of a noble but indigent family at Amporecchio in Tuscany, towards the close of the 15th century. Till the age of twenty, he lived in distress and poverty at Florence. He was afterwards patronized by his relations, cardinal Bernardo of Bibiena, the cardinal's nephew, Angelo, and by the datary Giberti, bishop of Verona, with whom he lived seven years. But neither from his noble friends nor from his own talents could he derive much advantage, for in his disposition he was careless and imprudent; he hated every kind of restraint and delighted in pleasure, satire, jokes, and buffoonery. Yet his talents and literature secured him an high esteem among the learned, and at Rome he was a valuable and illustrious member of the academy *de Vignajuoli*. In that city, then so celebrated for its poets and scholars, he passed some years, and at length sought retirement in Florence, as a canon in the cathedral, and lived under the protection of cardinal Hippolito de Medici and the duke Alexander. These patrons, however, having honoured his talents with a valuable establishment, involved his life in misery by their quarrels and intrigues. One of them endeavoured to bribe Berni to poison the other, but the poet having the virtue to resist, was himself poisoned in 1536, as a reward for his gratitude and magnanimity. This account, however, is not free from suspicions of falseness; and from Monnoye's construction of a playful letter, written by Nicolo Franco to Petrarch, in 1538, it would seem that the physicians of Florence, being called to him when sick, had, by their neglect or bad treatment, designedly avenged themselves for the railleries and satires, which their patient had composed against them, their instruments, and their profession. But as this construction rests on an equivoque, in the expression *i Medici*, it is but doing justice to the illustrious family of Florence, and to the honourable profession of medicine, to quote the letter, as it is printed in Monnoye's notes to the article Berni, in *Baillet's jugemens de Savans*. *Hora del Bernia non vi posso dar altro avviso se non che havendo fatti, non se che capitoli e baie de gui orinali i Medici l'han mandato via di Firenza. Dove egli si trove mo non si sa.* 'At present I cannot tell you any other news about Berni, except that having made I know not what satires and jokes upon urinals, the physicians (or, the Medici) have sent him away from Florence.—Where he now is, nobody can tell.' Some biographers credit neither of the accounts, and place his death towards 1550, and others mention that he published his great poetical work in the middle of the 16th century. His death was certainly obscure, and perhaps it was tragical. The name of Berni must be added to the list of scholars, who exemplify the unfortunate truth, that genius is not necessarily allied to prudence, and that the last hours of those may be miserable, who once were encircled by patrons and honoured by the praises of learning.

As an author, Berni is chiefly distinguished by his burlesque compositions. He has the honour of giving his name to a particular species of burlesque, which the Italians call *Bernesco*, and the French criticks *Berniesque*. He also excelled in satire and invective, which were keen and bitter; for the matter was very obnoxious, and the manner natural, easy, and elegant. He wrote the life of the infamous Pietro Aretino, of whom he was the particular enemy, in a style of caustick severity, and with a mind of remorseless aversion. Boccalini in his *Ragguagli di Parnasso*, considers him as one of the greatest satyrists whom Italy has produced, and represents him on the hill of the muses, as challenging Juvenal to an exertion of his powers, for the purpose of determining, whether the Latin or the Italian language was the best suited for reproach and invective; but Juvenal would not accept the offer of Berni, who consequently derives an evident superiority over the Roman satirist. His principal work is the recomposing of Boiardo's Orlando Inamorato, which he has almost entirely superceded, so that the original is little known and almost unregarded.

In the 14th century the epick and romance writers of Italy were chiefly employed in celebrating the wars of Charlemagne, the adventures of the Paladins, the wanderings of illustrious damsels, the feats of chivalry, and the enchantments of magicians. These actions furnished a subject to almost every poet, which he treated agreeably to the nature of his genius; sometimes they were rendered ridiculous in extravagant and burlesque stanzas, and sometimes they became highly pleasant and interesting in serious poetry and harmonious versification. Such, however, was the taste of the age, that absurdity of story and unmeaning expression continually occur in the best poetical compositions. Hardly a writer of romance is to be named, who does not mix buffoonery with gravity, the majestick language of scripture with the actions of heroes, and miserable ribaldry with dignified narration. Among the early pieces of any excellence the Italians have celebrated the Morgante Maggiore of Luigi Pulci, which still continues by the beauty of its tales, and a Florentine dialect, to secure the applause of its readers. All the rules of criticism however are disregarded by the author, and taste and judgment seem to have been unknown to him; yet the work was admired by Politian, Ficinus, and other ornaments of the court of Lorenzo de Medici; and the authors of the Dictionary de la Crusca have ranked it among the classical writings of Italy.

In the year 1496 Boiardo, count of Scandiano, published his Orlando Inamorato. Its subject is the love of Orlando, the hero of chivalry, for Angelica, the daughter of Galaphron, king of Cathay. His adventures and achievements in her favour, form the principal part of the work, but the actions and errantry of the Paladins and Saracen knights are continually interspersed. The poem consists of seventy-nine cantos, which are divided into three books. The whole work is a vast, unfinished, and unequal production, comprising a narration of three great epick actions; the invasion of France by Gradasso, so, to obtain Bayardo, Rinaldo's horse, and Durindana, Orlando's sword; the siege of Albracca, by Agrican, king of Tartary, and other enemies of Galaphron and Angelica; and the invasion of France by Agrimant, emperour of Africa, and Marsilius, king of Spain. This long work evidenced great powers of invention, even superiour to what the divine Ariosto afterwards displayed in the Orlando Furioso. Indeed such was his excellence, that he has received the dignified praise of the great Cervantes; for the curious reader may recollect, that when the curate and the barber were examining the books in the library of Don Quixote, the former proposed to lighten the punishment of the romance of Montalvan, and the lies of Turpin, expressly because "they contain part of the invention of the renowned poet Matteo Boiardo."

The imagination of Boiardo was prolifick, but the style was harsh and barbarous, and the versification uncouth, constrained, and inharmonious. Yet it was read and admired by the Italians for the variety of incident and the liveliness of manner, which characterised it. Boiardo's successors therefore endeavoured to improve it by finishing the work, and by adding the charms of grace and melody to the attractions of invention and pleasing narrative. Agostino continued it in three books, which were not however favourably received. Dominichi, a cotemporary of Berni, made some attempts to give purity of language to it, but which were soon forgotten in the splendour which succeeded; for about half a century after the death of Boiardo, appeared the Rifacimento of the Orlando Inamorato by Francesco Berni. This so greatly improved the original, that Boiardo's work is almost unknown. The new creator or modeller gave sweetness of versification to the luxuriant fancy of the old poem. He entirely recast the work. He inserted comick sentiments and allusions; he interspersed some stanzas by himself; and the cantos received from him various changes in the beginnings, which were introduced by some natural moral reflections; Yet the corrections and additions of Berni did not always add to the value of the original; and by one of his stanzas in particular, quoted by Hoole, the reputation of Ariosto suffered in the opinion of father Bouhours, who attributed to Ariosto a ridiculous absurdity, which is only to be found in the poetry of Berni, added to the work of Boiardo.

The Orlando Inamorato has been translated into French paraphrastic prose by Le Sage, but it has never been incorporated into the English language. On this subject Hoole thus speaks in the preface to the translation of Orlando Furioso, "Indeed, though it is a work highly entertaining in Berni's dress, it would scarcely admit of a translation into English verse, the narrative descending to such familiar images and expressions, as would by no means suit the genius of our language and poetry." On this head, Hoole deserves to be considered with attention; he had read with care the Italian epick poets, and in his translation of Ariosto and Tasso, which have been very favourably received by the publick, he has exhibited great maturity of judgment and elegance of taste. Yet we know not, that the authority of Hoole is decisive; if the images in Berni are familiar, they might possibly be modelled into elegance; if the expressions are low, they might easily be elevated into dignity. Hoole might have been deterred from translation, because he had done his duty and was fatigued with the task ; other scholars may have been frightened from the undertaking, because it must have been tedious, or because they did not choose to fail, where even success might not have been rewarded. The author of the work before us also gives it as his opinion, that the whole work is not susceptible of an English dress, but thinks that selections might be made suitable for translation and the publick taste. It is certainly true, that the Orlando Inamorato has no pretensions to critical unity, and therefore the parts are not necessarily dependent on each other ; but the stories and adventures may have such a connection by reference and allusion, that it might be difficult to find a single tale, which would not require much previous knowledge to make it completely intelligible. In such cases long notes would be necessary, and they would sometimes by their tediousness invite to sleep, and by their obscurity might often demand new explanation. If the translator should undertake to abridge, he must rely on his own judgment for the discriminating powers, and how is the reader to know, that in these qualities he is superiour to the original ? In an abridgement we are always sure that what we find is also in the original, but we are not sure that there is not something in the original which ought to be found in the abridgement. Our author also partly says with Hoole, that "the images are often low and disgusting, the style frequently mean and vulgar, and that the retorts of the heroes appear to partake more of the low buffoonery and coarse invective of Lazzaroni, than the courtly style of chivalry." These charges we have endeavoured to parry before, with regard to translation. Boiardo cannot be defended, but his translator need not propagate his offences against taste by being nicely metaphrastical. What is licentious, he may generalize or avoid ; what is absurd, he need not translate ; what is disgusting, he may render indifferent by niceness of expression, or palatable by easy alteration. If his changes are great, he should mention them in a short note ; if his suppressions are important, he should express his reasons with firmness and delicacy. Upon the whole, we are inclined to believe that a complete translation of the Orlando Inamorato would be desirable on its own account ; and we are confirmed in the opinion, because it is necessary for the perfect comprehension of the tales in Orlando Furioso. No translation has appeared in Great Britain, and we should be proud, if the American nation, in gratitude for the pleasure it has received from Hoole, should present to the English a suitable and complete translation of an Italian poet, who has furnished similes to Milton, and materials to Ariosto.

The publication under review is called "The Enchanted Lake," & is translated from the 2d book of the Orlando Inamorato of Berni. In the preface a short account is given of the Italian author and his great work. We proceed to give an analysis of the story of the production before us. Previously, however, we wish to criticise the author's opinion on the derivation of the word "burlesque," as expressed in a note in the preface.

Our author says, that the English word, burlesque, derives its appellation from Berni, who first employed and perfected it, it being originally called *Berniscan*, and by corruption *Burlescan*, whence *burlesque* in English. We believe that the author is incorrect, for *burlesque* is regularly from *burlesco* in Italian, and by Johnson is derived from *burlare*, to joke, and has really for its root *burla*, a joke.—*Bernesco* is indeed a species of *burlesco*, but only a species, which derives its name from *Berni*; it is not so coarse in its style, as ordinary burlesque, but is more chastened, or, as the French say, *soigné*. These Italian words, ending in *esco*, agreeably to the idiom of the language signify *after the manner of*; thus *pittoresco* is, after the manner of a painter; *grotesco*, after the manner of a grotto; *bernesco*, after the manner of Berni; and *burlesco*, after the manner of a joke. If any authority were wanting to show the incorrectness of the author's opinion on this etymological curiosity, it might be derived from Baillet, who quotes Mr. Naudet as saying, ‘‘*l'Orlando* de Berni recut ‘l'approbation & les applaudissimens de ceux du Pays, de sorte ‘qu'on a cru lui faire honneur de ‘donner son nom à une des espéces du genre Burlesque, qui est ‘en usage chéz les Italiens, qu'on ‘appelle *Berniesque* á cause de lui.’

The story of the work is as follows: Orlando, having destroyed the enchanted gardens of Falerina, queen of Orgagna, and killed or enchained the monsters, which guarded it, proceeds with Falerina to release the prisoners, who had been confined in some of her distant dungeons. During this journey they came to a bridge, built over a deep, dark lake. On a meadow was built a large, strong tower, which was the residence of a bold, murderous robber, Arridano. He was the terrible agent of the fairy Morgana, and used to seize any illustrious persons who were passing that way, strip them of their armour, and throw them into the lake, and after sinking to the bottom they became prisoners to Morgana. Falerina entreated Orlando not to encounter Arridano, who wore enchanted armour, and was assisted by the powerful fairy Morgana. Orlando, moved by her prayers and tears, hesitated to proceed, till he observed hanging on a cypress the arms of the renowned Rinaldo, who had been made a prisoner by the robber. He immediately advanced with impetuosity to the meadow. Falerina deserts him. He fights a most violent battle with Arridano, who at length seizes Orlando, and plunges with him into the lake. They arrive at the bottom of the lake, where was a most beautiful plain, and Arridano, attempting here to strip Orlando of his armour, whom he thought completely conquered, was compelled to renew the battle, and is finally killed, after a long and terrible encounter.

Orlando, after a strange and adventurous journey through enchanted ground, came to a small bridge, beyond which extended a plain, enriched with all the treasures of Morgana. He endeavoured in vain to pass the bridge several times, and is prevented by its alternate destruction and renewal by its guardian figure in iron armour. Orlando finally swims to the other side, and after some interesting adventures proceeds towards the prison, where Morgana had confined Dudon, Rinaldo, Brandimarte, &c. and at length comes near a fountain;

There on the herbage green extended lay,
Wrapp'd in soft slumber's folds th'enchanting Fay.

Beyond a chrystal mound, Orlando observes his captive friends, whom he cannot approach; and is advised by a damsel to endeavour to obtain from Morgana the key of the gate, which alone admits an entrance into the enchanted garden. Orlando follows the advice, and approaches the fairy, who flies from the place, and Orlando pursues. A violent storm arises, but the hero continues the pursuit. He is met by the hag Repentance, who was decreed by fate to be his companion and tormentor; and while he flies after the fairy, this wild, haggard being follows and scourges him with a whip. Orlando, though in violent anger, is obliged to submit. He continues to chase Morgana, and at length catches and holds her by a golden lock of hair, and this was the signal of success. After some advice from the hag, who then leaves him, and a request from the fairy, he obtains the key of the prison garden, and hastens to release the knights. After a long journey through the roads and scenes of enchantment, the captives, having obtained their armour, pursued their way in different directions.

After the long account we have given of the whole poem of Boiardo, and the analysis of the episode under review, we have hardly room for minute criticism. The poetry only extends to forty pages, and twenty-seven pages, in small print, are occupied in notes and additional notes, except the two last, which contain a small glossary. This most extraordinary fact is decisive evidence of the difficulty we have before stated, with regard to translations of selections. It covers this plan with insuperable difficulties, and seems fully to show the necessity of a translation, where the parts may be rendered intelligible by easy reference to other passages after the manner of Hoole. Of the versification it is not easy to give the general character. Some of the lines are remarkably feeble and prosaick; others have strength and dignity. The two following, in page 6, are weakly turned and twisted:

For thee my heart with pity glows sincere,
Thou left alone a timid woman here.

And what shall we say to this line:

Lov'd cousin mine! from Paradise O hear!

The speech of the robber Arridano, in p. 11, is probably mean enough in the original, yet it cannot easily be lower than the following:

He cried, 'Thy toil is here but labour vain,
Such blows might serve to frighten flies away,
But for this one a hundred I'll repay.'

Our author is sometimes as much at a loss for chiming words, as a ringer would be for a jingle, who had only two bells and a small one in his steeple; thus, pages 14, 16, 17, 18, 21:

Amidst th' innumerous gems a wond'rous stone
Far o'er the rest in dazzling lustre shone.

Form'd all of gold, and o'er them thickly strown
Pearls, rubies, diamonds, intermingled shone.

From whose proud top a bright translucent stone
A carbuncle of wond'rous beauty shone.

At length to thought recurr'd the precious stone
That like enkindled fire bright-blazing shone;

And form'd a mirrour of transparent stone
From whence the garden bright reflected shone.

Some of the rhymes are extremely defective. Since the days of Pope the ear has become so familiar to easy harmonious versification, that what was once offered as a luxury is now demanded as a right; as the tea of China, which was once a curiosity, is now become a necessary of life; yet in this poem the ear is annoyed with "toil" rhyming with "mile"; "sped" is forced to associate with "freed," and "are" stubbornly yokes with "prefer." Surely these broken bells, thus jangling, might have been exchanged for the pleasant symphony, which Cowper heard undulating from the village.

We have seldom found in any poetry two lines more harsh and heavy than the following. The author was not contented with ruggedness of alliteration, but in the last verse has added the "slow length" of a useless unbending Alexandrine:

Whose boughs at once the bursting bud unfold,
Gleam gay with flowers and glow with vegetable
gold.

Towards the close of the work we meet with two lines, which have not more dignity and poetry, than the celebrated prose line of ten syllables in Boswell's Johnson:

'He laid his knife and fork across his plate.'

The lines are these, flat, mean, and monosyllabick:

In him is all my bliss, for him I sue,
O take him not, or take me with him too.

We have pointed out a sufficiency of faults to gratify the acrimony of the critick, and more than a sufficiency for the kind friends of the author; yet we might mention others, which deserve severe reprehension; but though the reviewer might say with Tacitus, "Mihi Otho, Galba, Vitellius, nec beneficio nec injuriâ cogniti," yet we hear that the author, Mr. Alsop, is beloved and esteemed by his numerous friends, who know him well, which is high praise "as the world goes"; and we readily acknowledge that his ambition is laudable, and his undertaking arduous and uncommon. We are willing to bestow every commendation on great endeavours and suitable exertions, and we therefore with pleasure assure our readers, that the following extract is not the only one, which combines ease and strength, variety and musick. It describes the battle between Orlando and Arridano;

He said, and hurl'd on high the pond'rous
mace,
Whose force had shook a mountain to its base;
Aside Orlando leap'd—with fruitless aim,
In thunder driven, the mace descending came,
Deep groan'd the solid earth beneath the stroke,
The mountain echo'd and the meadow shook.
Now 'twixt the twain a fiercer strife arose,
With deadlier ire inflam'd the battle glows,
This cloth'd in strength beyond all human might,
In valour that excell'd and skill in fight;
The giant wields his mace, with thundering sound,
Thick, heavy, fall the erring blows around:
In vain he strikes, for still his wary foe
With dext'rous speed eludes the coming blow,
Now foins, now feints, now shifts his ground, and
tries
Each varied stratagem that skill supplies.
Far else the robber fares—his streaming blood
From those deep wounds effused a crimson flood;
At length the knight the glad advantage spy'd,
And drove his falchion through the caitiff's side,
Whose life-blood issuing with the fleeting breath,
Writhing he fell, extended pale in death.

This is vigorous and poetical, and we would not make a single deduction from the praise, did not our duty compel us to observe, that the translation of a battle between heroes cannot now deserve the highest commendation. The combats in Homer, Tasso, and Ariosto have been so excellently versified by Pope and Hoole, that their successors have little more to do, than to combine the various beauties of their words and sentences. We say nothing of Virgil, for though Dryden has injected into his version all the vigour, of which the battles in the Æneid were susceptible, yet in this part of epick grandeur, the Roman bard is evidently inferiour to the Grecian and Italian poets.

We beg leave to entertain our readers with one more extract, which displays a storm, and to remark generally, that Mr. Alsop has succeeded better in translating passages, descriptive of the exertion of great power, than those, which paint the beauties of scenery and person:

And now dark grew the ſky—in murky clouds,
Still thick'ning faſt, the ſun his radiance ſhrouds,
The wind wild riſes, loud the tempeſt roars,
Rain mix'd with hail-ſtones o'er the deſert pours,
Dread burſts the thunder, blue the lightning
gleams,
Wide flaſhes round, or darts in arrowy ſtreams;
Thick ſpreads the miſt o'er mountain and o'er
plain,
And heaven appears diſſolv'd in floods of rain.
Still grows the tempeſt—fled the light of day,
Alone the lightning lends its lurid ray,
Rent by the wind the trees uprooted lie,
The beaſts affrighted from their coverts fly,
And foxes, doves, the ſerpent's venom'd brood,
Slain by the ſtorm lie ſcatter'd o'er the wood.

We have before acknowledged, that we have not been able to procure the work of Boiardo or Berni. Of course it is utterly impossible for us to say a word on the fidelity of the translation. The poem before us is sufficiently interesting to be read with pleasure, though the poetry might easily have possessed more variety of rhyme and less feebleness of construction. If the author has time, he may gain the talents for translation, because diligence and careful examination and rigid correction may easily do away the objections we have stated. The specimen before us is hardly sufficient to exact our opinion, as to the recommending of Berni to Mr. Alsop for a complete translation. If he wishes to rank with translators, like Pope, Hoole and Sotheby, he must learn to be vigorous by years of correction, and harmonious by attentive cultivation and studious devotion to the masters of song. If he does not pant for such high praise, he may still gain commendation; but this ought never to satisfy the aspirations of literary ambition; and Mr. Alsop should contemplate with regret, but without fearful anticipation, the decaying glory, which now feebly illuminates the Tasso of Fairfax and the Ariosto of Harrington.

ART. 40.

Leonora, a novel, in two volumes. By Miss Edgworth. London.—
New-York.—Re-printed by I.
Riley & Co. 1806.

WHEN this novel was first announced to us, we fancied, from its name, it came to swell the catalogue of those so continually flowing *a fluminibus stultitiæ* into the *oceanum oblivionis*; which have sometimes come so thick and fast, as to threaten taste and her temples with a deluge; and which actually have polluted a few of her fountains, and thrown down some monuments in their course. But we are now happy to confess ourselves mistaken; and if Leonora does not exhibit great originality of thought and expression, ingenuity of invention, or interesting incident, to recommend her, she possesses many sterling qualities, which elevate her very considerably above mediocrity. The general style of this novel is harmonious and pleasing; and the collocation much purer, than we usually find in female writings. Considering it is written in a series of letters from different characters, there is too great a monotony of manner, and similarity of diction. There are several other errors; but they are trivial, and mostly in the *manner*; the *matter* is unexceptionable. But these may be pardoned in the freedom and familiarity of "Letters."

The object of the writer, in this publication, is twofold. The principal characters are Lady Leonora and Lady Olivia. Lady Leonora is represented as an *English wife*, in the most amiable and engaging point of view; endowed with beauty, without being conscious of it; sensibility, which she conceals; having an implicit confidence in the conjugal fidelity of her husband, and the strongest attachment to his interest and honour; possessing every imaginable excellence and virtue, which can secure domestick felicity, but at the same time a generosity and credulity, which occasion all her woes. Lady Olivia had been an English woman, early in the friendship of Leonora. She had been married; but finding, soon after her nuptials, that "her husband's heart was not in unison with her own," she left him;—and upon her arrival at Paris, where she resided some years, she *unfortunately* became enamoured of another man; but it being impossible to control the influence of French "love," "philosophy," and "metaphysicks," which assailed her at once, she submitted, though "with great reluctance." Compelled some time after her *initiation* to return to England, she sues to Leonora, on the strength of youthful friendship, for her countenance and protection against the voice of calumny, which had been raised against her in her absence; touched with the narration of her sorrows, Leonora vindicates her character, and receives her into her dwelling. Olivia, in return, abuses her confidence, violates her friendship, and seduces her husband, while at the same time she is intriguing with her ci-devant paramour, with whom she considers herself in a suspended connexion. She writes to her friend at Paris, madame de P——, who is also a philosopher and a metaphysician, concerning her new "arrangement" with the husband of her friend in England. She expresses some reluctance on the score of "gratitude," &c. which seems so ridiculous to madame de P——, that she exclaims in her reply:

Who can control the passions or the winds? After all, *l'erreur d'un moment* is not irretrievable. You reproach yourself too bitterly, my sweet friend, for your involuntary injustice to Leonora. Assuredly it could not be your intention to sacrifice your repose to Mr. L.; you loved him against your will; and you know it is by the intention that we must judge of actions; the positive harm done to the world in general is in all cases the only just measure of criminality. Now what harm is done to the universe, and what injury can accrue to any individual, provided you keep your own counsel? As long as your friend is deceived, she is happy; it therefore becomes your duty, your virtue, to dissemble. I am no great casuist, but all this appears to me self-evident; and these I always thought were your principles of philosophy. I have drawn out my whole store of metaphysicks for your advice. I flatter myself I have set your poor distracted head to rights. One word more, for I like to go to the bottom of a subject, when I can do it in two minutes. Virtue is desirable because it makes us happy; consequently to make ourselves happy is to be truly virtuous.

This illuminated reasoning had the desired effect, and Olivia acknowledges herself convinced of her ridiculous scrupulosity and insensible relapse into the English way of thinking, in her next letter:

Your truly philosophical letter, my infinitely various Gabrielle, infused a portion of its charming spirit into my soul. My mind was fortified and elevated by your eloquence. Who could think that a woman of your lively genius could be so profound? and who could expect from a woman, who has passed her life in the world, such original and deep reflections? You see you were mistaken, when you thought you had no genius for philosophical subjects.

* * * * * * * *

The essence of truth cannot be affected by external circumstances. Now the proper application of metaphysicks frees the mind from vulgar prejudices, and dissipates the baby terrours of an ill-educated conscience. To fall in love with a married man, and the husband

> of your intimate friend! how dreadful this sounds to some ears! Even mine were startled at first, till I called reason to my assistance. Then I had another difficulty to combat, to own, and own unmasked, a passion to the object of it, would shock the delicacy of those who are governed by common forms, and who are slaves to vulgar prejudices; but a little philosophy liberates our sex from the tyranny of custom, teaches us to disdain hypocrisy, and glory in the simplicity of truth.
>
> * * * * * * * *
>
> Adieu, dear and amiable Gabrielle. These things are managed better in France. OLIVIA.

Upon Olivia's imagining her conquest complete, she determines to go with the husband of Leonora on his embassy to Russia. Madame de P—— very well expresses her spirit of *universal conquest*, upon receiving her friend's intelligence of this. Letter LXIX—

> And now, my charming Olivia, raise your fine eyes as high as ambition can look, and you will perhaps discover my grand object. You do not see it yet—Look again.—Do you not see the *emperour of Russia?* What would you think of him for a lover? if it were only for novelty's sake, it would really be pleasant to have a czar at one's feet.

This novel is well calculated to second the object of ridiculing the "high sublime of deep absurd," in the late fashionable *philosophistical, metaphysical French system of morality*; in which MARRIAGE and DIVORCE "cross over and go six hands round," while virtue and vice, chastity and prostitution, and religion with atheism are seen "walsing" together in harmonious concert. The epidemick fury, with which this doctrine was *given* and *received*, seems somewhat to be abated. We do not at present hear so many declaimers about the *rights of woman*, &c. &c. &c. &c. Our boarding-school misses have become less *eloquent*, and more obedient. They seem to have renounced the *metaphysical* notion of *perfectability*, as *incompatible* with the *fitness and nature of things*; and many of them have even condescended to *hear*, that the *chivalrous* profession of an *all-subduing heroine* is less *advantageous* and honourable, than that of a modest and virtuous woman; and that it is better to secure the affections of *one* man of sense, than to be seen leading a *trillion* of frown-mangled fops in triumph.

ART. 41.

Lectures on the constitution and laws of England: with a commentary on magna charta, and illustrations of many of the English statutes. By the late Francis Stoughton Sullivan, LL.D. royal professor of common law in the university of Dublin. To which authorities are added, and a discourse is prefixed, concerning the laws and government of England. By Gilbert Stuart, LL.D. First American edition, in two volumes 8vo. Portland. Tho's B. Wait & Co. 1805.*

THIS edition is printed with unusual neatness, on good paper, and with a fair type, from the 2d English edition, 4to. of 1776, from which we have not observed any essential variations. In justice to the publisher, and on account of the merit of the performance, we recommend it to the perusal of American students. It is a posthumous publication: but whether from the care of the learned author, or from the diligence of his friend Dr. Stuart, it is presented to the publick in a style of perfection, which is not frequently found in works, which have been published after the decease of their author.

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* This work was first published in 1772. The monthly reviewers highly commend it, they speak of it as an interesting and very instructive performance, and of the author as a learned and ingenious writer and a zealous friend to the original freedom of the British constitution.

The mode of conveying knowledge by lectures has many advantages. It is true, that the lecturer must pursue a scientifick method, so that a course of lectures may comprehend a general survey of his science in its natural order and divisions. But if he has fancy, he is permitted to indulge it, even on a grave subject, in exciting and relieving the attention of his pupils. His views of subjects may be general, without an accumulation of minute particulars, and select, so as chiefly to embrace the more pleasing and interesting branches. This admirable mode of instruction has been adopted in all ages. It bears some affinity to the philosophical conversations of the Grecian sages, in their academies and literary retreats. It has been adopted in the most celebrated universities of Europe and America; and it is happily calculated to inspire the noble youth with a love of study and labour.

Lectures are peculiarly favourable for inspiring a taste for the study of the law, a science, which interests all beings "mortal and immortal, natural and voluntary," and which is applicable to the infinitely diversified occasions of life. Anciently, poetry and musick employed their respective powers in diffusing the knowledge and inspiring obedience to the laws; and indeed, what science is more worthy of the charms of eloquence, than that which looks with an equal eye on men of all degrees, and which is the protector of the ingenuity of the artist, the learning of the scholar, the fruits of husbandry, and the rewards of commerce? Our system of jurisprudence was formerly dispersed throughout a multitude of books, and was to be collected from dictionaries and abridgments, written in a barbarous dialect, obscured with technical terms, and exhibited to the eye in a formidable black text, reminding us of an ancient knight-errant equipped for battle. But since the publication of the Lectures of Judge Blackstone, which display, in a style of incomparable elegance, and in a most just and philosophical arrangement, the whole system of English security and rights, the science of the law has become a fashionable branch of study. We shall not now be deemed paradoxical in asserting, that the education of no gentleman is complete, till his mind is enriched with a general knowledge of the laws of his country.

Some have doubted, whether, since the publication of the lectures of Blackstone, the profession can boast of so many eminent lawyers as in former times. Most students are content to glean from his elegant pages, and are averse to reading the old books. But it must not be forgotten, that the works of Lord Coke are the forest, from which this author collected materials for raising a structure, which probably, like the Roman and Grecian classicks, will survive the nation, whose glory it is designed to perpetuate. Students should be reminded, that the commentaries of Blackstone are intended only as an introduction to the science, and that so far as an excellent map is calculated to give us a true general idea of a country, to make us acquainted with its boundaries, and with the relative connection of its parts, they are calculated to aid us in our juridical researches. The lectures of Dr. Sullivan are a production of secondary importance, but admirable in their kind, and most worthy of being read. They are addressed to young gentlemen, yet strangers to the study. He varies from the plan of Blackstone in commencing his lectures with the law relative to *things*, and justifies himself in this respect by the opinion of Sir Matthew Hale, that the young student must begin his study with this branch of the law. We do not think it of essential importance, whether he commences with the law of *persons* or with that of *things*. It is certain however, that neither can be thoroughly understood without some acquaintance with both.

As the law of real property in England had its origin in the feudal system, the lecturer gives an historical account of its origin and progress, till it became the common law of Europe. He describes the various species of feuds, their gradual revolutions, and the rise of what are denominated the *modern English tenures*. Estates in land among the Germans, who undoubtedly were the authors of the feudal system, were anciently temporary, annually granted at the will of the prince to his companions, and generally on condition, that the tenant should perform certain military services. As that people led a wandering life, living principally by hunting and pasturage, they were in the practice of removing from place to place, and, having no local attachments, they had no desire to possess a permanent interest in the soil. Their manners and principles on the subject of property continued for some time after they had extended their conquests into the Roman empire. But as they begun to depend for subsistence on the tillage of the land, and became sensible of the comforts of a fixed habitation, they likewise became anxious to enlarge their estates in the soil, and from holding them at the will of the lord and by sufferance, the custom arose of obtaining grants for life, and afterward, of estates transmissible by descent and by devise.

The principal part of the second volume is less interesting to us than it must be to Englishmen, as it contains a minute but learned account of the various orders of their nobility and citizens, the constitution of their Parliament, the state of justice among them at different periods of their history, the institution and jurisdiction of their various domestick tribunals, and the gradual progress of civil and political liberty, till it became settled and fortified under their present constitution.

The seven concluding lectures contain a valuable commentary on magna charta, which has for its end, as expressed in the preamble, 1. the honour of Almighty God; 2d. the safety of the King's soule; 3d. the advancement of holy church; and 4th. the amendment of the realm. This statute, which was passed 9 Hen. III. is "declaratory of the principall grounds of the fundamentall laws of England". It is an amusing and useful exercise for the student to compare many of its principles with the declaration of rights prefixed to the constitution of Massachusetts. The best commentary on magna charta is contained in the second institute.

Should we be asked, why we recommend to the American student a book on the feudal system, we answer, that it is impossible to understand the English writers, through the medium of whose productions we must seek for the law and practice of our own country, without a knowledge of this system. The originals of many of the laws, customs, and modes of administring justice, which prevail at the present day, are to be traced to very remote times, when the feudal system was regarded from the extent of its sway, as the law of nations. Though now encrusted with antiquity, it is yet a venerable subject of contemplation. If it is true, as Littleton and Coke assert, that no man can merit the honourable appellation of a lawyer, who is not perfectly acquainted with the grounds and reasons of the law, it is surely our duty to recommend a work, which is well calculated to aid us in the acquisition of so valuable a portion of professional education.

The origin, progress, and fate of systems, which have had an influence on the happiness of millions of human beings, surely is no common subject of curiosity. Who is content to be ignorant of the cause of light and darkness, of heat and cold, and of the grateful revolutions of the seasons? And who will content himself, like the stupid Egyptians, to enjoy a soil, enriched by the waters of the Nile, and will not, in gratitude to the God of the river, trace him through its windings, and worship him at its fountain?

ART. 42.

An anniversary address delivered before the Federal gentlemen of Concord and its vicinity, July 4, 1806. By Daniel Webster. Concord, N. H. Hough. *pp.* 21.

The interesting subject of this address is the question, whether it be possible to preserve the present form of our government, the solitary representative of republican institutions, which remains for the contemplation of mankind.

> When we speak of *preserving the Constitution*, we mean not the *paper* on which it is written, but the *spirit* which dwells in it. Government *may* lose all its real character, its genius, its temper, without losing its appearance. Republicanism, unless you guard it, will creep out of its case of parchment, like a snake out of its skin. You may have a Despotism, under the name of a Republick. You may look on a government, and see it possess all the external modes of Freedom, and yet find nothing of the essence, the vitality, of Freedom in it; just as you may contemplate an embalmed body, where art hath preserved proportion and form, amidst nerves without motion, and veins void of blood.

Among the most numerous and the most dangerous enemies of our government, he mentions the passions and vices of the people. But considering that evil communications corrupt systems, as well as individuals, he enlarges on the dangers which threaten its well being from its foreign relations. Intimately connected as is our country with foreign nations by commerce, which, from its nature, cannot exist without rivalship, he infers the necessity and good policy of granting it a protection, sufficient to defend it from the interruptions and aggressions, which the spirit of rivalship and the injustice of other nations, may dispose them to offer. The want of protection to commerce will be more fatal to our agriculture, than either the drought or the mildew: for, in this instance, were it left to our choice, we should certainly imitate the conduct of David, by choosing "to fall into the hands of the Lord (for his mercies are great) and not to fall into the hands of men."

We have seldom read any production of this kind, which has contained more correct sentiment, expressed with so much felicity of fancy and purity of style. It is free from the rancorous colourings of party spirit, which are wholly inconsistent with true eloquence. If there is any fault in the style, it is that the sentences, though not colloquial, are in general too sententious, and expressed with too much brevity for the flow of a publick harangue. We must notice likewise, that the printer has been scandalously inattentive to correcting the press. We add one extract from which our readers may judge of the author's manner.

When we turn from Great-Britain to France, we are led to contemplate a nation of very different situation, power, and character. We seem to be carried back to the Roman age. The days of Cæsar are come again. Even a greater than Cæsar is here. The throne of the Bourbons is filled by a new character, of the most astonishing fortunes. A new Dynasty hath taken place in Europe. A new era hath commenced. An Empire is founded, more populous, more energetic, more warlike, more powerful, than ancient Rome, at any moment of her existence. The base of this mighty fabric covers France, Holland, Spain, Prussia, Italy, and Germany, embracing, perhaps, an eighth part of the population of the globe.

Though this Empire is commercial in some degree, and in some of its parts, its ruling passion is not commerce, but war. Its genius is conquest; its ambition is fame. With all the immorality, the licentiousness, the prodigality, the corruption, of declining Rome, it has the enterprize, the courage, the ferocity, of Rome, in the days of the Consuls. While the French Revolution was acting, it was difficult to speak of France, without exciting the rancour of political party. The cause, in which her leaders professed to be engaged, was too dear to American hearts to suffer their motives to be questioned, or their excesses censured, with just severity. But the Revolutionary Drama is now closed—the curtain hath fallen on those tremendous scenes, which for fourteen years held the eyes of the universe—that meteor, which "from its horrid hair shook pestilence and war," hath now passed off into the distant regions of space, and left us to speculate coolly on the causes of its wonderful appearance.

ART. 43.

An address, delivered at Salem, July 4, 1806, on a military celebration of the day, by the brigade and regimental officers, late commissioned officers, and three independent companies, at the request of the officers. By Maj. Samuel Swett. Boston: Printed by Oliver & Munroe, for Joshua Cushing, Salem. 1806.

We have been frequently reminded by the continual appearance and disappearance of the addresses and orations of our countrymen, of the visionary progeny of Banquo, as represented in the play; and have often been disposed, like the irritated Macbeth, to exclaim, we'll "see no more :... what! will the line stretch out to the crack of doom?"....Why do you shew us "this?" But as there is no plea to excuse us from derogatory duties, which actually belong to the department we fill, we bend to the drudgery of the present review, with as tolerable a grace as we can cleverly assume, persuaded that our readers, let them withhold what they can, will hardly deprive us of the merit of patience. We confess, that we are disappointed in being obliged to express an unfavourable opinion of the lucubrations of the gentleman of Salem, and frankly acknowledge that we expected something better from a scholar, who regards his country as "superiour in seminaries, sciences and arts," than the common-place declamation of a street politician. We think that he might, at least, have preserved his mother tongue from uncouth combinations, impure phraseology, and monstrous metaphor; that he might have discovered the distinction between coarseness and simplicity, fustian and sublimity. We looked to have beheld excellence where opportunities were enjoyed, and imagined that one who resided in *Academus* would be gifted with inspiration. But we have been wretchedly disappointed; and should any one judge of our orator by the complexion of his performance, he would conceive that he was inspired by no muse but of the denomination of *Draggle-tail*, and that he had taken up his abode only in the purlieus of literature. It may be conjectured by many, from the chaotick character of the Major's matter and ornament, that he was required to compose at a short notification; that his similes were driven into service too precipitately to be disciplined, and that his ideas were drafted, before they could be dressed. Whether or not this was the case, we pretend not to say; but we confidently affirm, that there is a surprising resemblance between his figures and sentiments, and the deplorable description which he gives of our militia, which, we humbly conceive, while we contend for the resemblance, to be but a few removes in discipline above the recruits of *Sir John*. But let us hear the Major speak for himself.

> "*Already Bonaparte, the fiery meteor, the splendid comet, whose magnificent vices we grow in love with, who has usurped the thunderbolt of Heaven, and is armed with poison and assassination, instruments of Hell, has begun his cannibal progress in our country; he has one foot in Louisiana.*

Rhetoricians, we believe, require that something like analogy should be preserved between two objects that are brought together for the purpose of illustration, and that no attribute should be assigned to one, that is incongruous with the other. How far this requisition has been regarded by the Major, *Bonaparte* and his comet sufficiently show; the latter possessing, along with its prototype, "magnificent vices, with which we are in love, instruments of hell, assassination, and poison," and very naturally beginning "a cannibal progress."

> 'Parallels as like, as Vulcan and his wife.'
>
> SHAK.

From their complimental notices of the ladies, one would imagine, that our orators combined the knight with the scholar. No anniversary is now a days observed without offering incense to the fair, and strangers might conceive, should they credit their worshippers, that the country was incommodious from the number of its goddesses; lilies and roses, corals and pearls, are so extravagantly offered to the divinity of their beauty, that the spring is deprived of her complexion and perfume, and the sea nymphs are in want of a necklace and comb. But, in the whole division of female idolaters, it will be difficult to discover many, who can come abreast with the Major in the extract that follows. We quote it as a pattern for *inamoratos* in general.

> Go next to defenceless Suabia. See the enemy in that country, see them make the rich poor, the poor, beasts of burthen; see them guilty of pillage, rape, and blood; see them murder mothers and the new born babe; and return again to your own country, and behold your own fair daughters, surpassing those of Carthage, who twisted their long and golden locks to bowstrings; the mild lustre of their eyes beaming love and intellect; chaste as Diana,

beauteous as the Goddess of love, untainted as the perfumed gale of Arabia; whom the devil in the wily serpent could not tempt; but they would tempt the devil.

In conclusion, to speak more emphatically than elegantly, we think that the Major has made a flash in the pan.

ART. 44.

An oration, pronounced at the Branch meeting-house in Salem, July 4, 1806, in commemoration of American Independence. By H. A. S. Dearborn. From the Register-office. *pp.* 14.

This is indeed a most pleasant and delectable speech. The author is not enthralled by the rules of rhetorick and logick; and, disdaining to creep in humble prose, he mounts Pegasus, and leaves disconsolate mortals below:

> 'His horse, the dear creature, he prances and rears,
> With ribbons in knots at his tail and his ears.'

The turbid stream of his eloquence is choaked by the disjointed fragments of images and metaphors:

> 'Banks, trees, and skies in thick disorder run.'

As specimens we select the following humorous paragraphs, though the rest of the oration will have cause to complain of this preference of its twin brethren:

> All the merciless engines of aristocracy were leagued in opposition to the philanthropick struggles of aspiring genius, whilst the insatiable scythe of persecution swung its keen set edge through the rich and luxuriant scions of germinating freedom. *P.* 8.
>
> Encouraged by our national policy, the regenerated spirit of enquiring genius has thrown open the massy portals of science, and exposed to the effulgent beams of day the engulphed Herculaneum of literature, which was long entombed by the lava of persecution, piled incumbent during the dark ages of superstitious barbarity. *P.* 12.

If Mr. D. will permit us for a moment to assume his gaudy garments and tinsel array, we should observe, that he has enlarged the boundaries of infinite space, and strolled *extra flammantia mœnia mundi*,...given existence to nonentity,...added potency to omnipotence,...soared above the empyrean; till his wings were melted in the blaze of his own eloquence, and then tumbled and descended below the bottom of the abyss of bathos,...and, by an oration of only fourteen pages, has irrefragably and confoundingly demonstrated that no sense is nonsense.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR AUGUST, 1806.

Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

The American Dispensatory; containing the operations of pharmacy; together with the natural, chemical, pharmaceutical, and medical history of the different substances employed in medicine: illustrated and explained according to the principles of modern chemistry, comprehending the improvements in Mr. Duncan's second edition of the Edinburgh New Dispensatory. The arrangement simplified, and the whole adapted to the practice of Medicine and Pharmacy in the United States. With several copperplates, exhibiting the new system of chemical characters, and representing the most useful apparatus. By John Redman Coxe, M. D. one of the Physicians of the Philadelphia Hospital, &c. 8vo. Pr. bound $4. Philadelphia, Thos. Dobson.

The Philadelphia Medical Museum, for March, April, and May, 1806. Vol. III. No. 1. Conducted by John Redman Gore, M. D. of Philadelphia. 8vo. pp. 116, Philadelphia, A. Bartram, for Thomas Dobson.

The Philadelphia Medical and Physical Journal, Part II. Vol. II. collected and arranged by Benjamin Smith Barton, M.D. 8vo. Price in boards $1. Philadelphia, Conrad & Co.

The Clerk's Assistant. In two parts. Containing the most useful and necessary forms of writings which occur in the ordinary transactions of business, under the names of acquittances, agreements, assignments, awards, &c. &c. and other instruments. Calculated for the use of the citizens of the United States, particularly the state of New-York. Selections of various useful practical forms, proceedings in partition of lands, &c. Poughkeepsie, N. Y. Nicholas Power.

Military System of South-Carolina; containing the articles of war, the laws of the United States and of South-Carolina, for the government of the Militia; also the patrol laws of that State, with a copious index. Pr. 75 cts. Charleston, Wm. P. Young.

Laws of the 1st session of the Ninth Congress of the United States. Washington City, Wm. Duane.

A new Translation, with notes, of the Third Satire of Juvenal; to which are added, Miscellaneous Poems, original and translated. New-York. Ezra Sargent. 12mo. pp. 192.

The 1st volume of the Dramatick Works of William Dunlap. 12mo. New York, J. Osborne.

Avenia: a tragical poem, on the oppression of the human species, and infringement of the rights of man. In 6 books, with notes explanatory and miscellaneous. Written in imitation of Homer's Iliad. By Thomas Branagan, author of a preliminary essay on slavery. 12mo. pp. 358. Philadelphia, S. Engles and Samuel Wood.

An Apology for the Rite of Baptism, and usual modes of Baptizing. In which an attempt is made to state fairly and clearly the arguments in proof of these doctrines; and also to refute the objections and reasons alleged against them, by the Rev. Daniel Merrill, and by the Baptists in general. By John Read, D. D. pastor of a church and congregation in Bridgewater. 12mo. Providence, Heaton and Williams.

The Young Convert's Companion: being a collection of Hymns for the use of conference meetings; original and selected. Published according to act of Congress. 12mo. Boston, E. Lincoln.

The Juvenile Instructor; or, a useful book for children, of things to be remembered; in familiar colloquial discourses between a parent and child. By D. R. Preston. 12mo. pp. 54. Boston, John M. Dunham.

A Map of the Rapids of the Ohio river, and of the countries on each side thereof, so far as to include the routes contemplated for canal navigation. To which are added, Explanatory Notes. By Mr. Jared Brooks. Frankfort, Kentucky, John Goodman.

Catalogus Eorum, qui adhuc in Universitate Harvardiana, ab anno MDCXLII, alicujus gradus laurea donati sunt, nominibus ex literarum ordine collocatis. 8vo. pp. 50. Salem: Typis Josuæ Cushing, MDCCCVI. Annoque Rerum Publicarum Americæ Fœderatarum Summæ Potestatis XXXI.

Noah's Prophecy on the Enlargement of Japheth, considered and illustrated in a sermon, preached in Putney, Vt. Dec. 5, 1805. By Clark Brown, A. M. late minister of Brimfield, Mass. Published by the request of the hearers.—12mo. Brattleboro', W. Fessenden.

A Sermon, delivered to the First Church of Boston, on the Lord's Day after the calamitous death of Mr. Charles Austin, member of the senior class in the university of Cambridge, which happened Aug. 4, 1806, in the 19th year of his age. By William Emerson, pastor of the church. 2d edition. 8vo. Boston, Belcher & Armstrong.

A Sermon, preached at the ordination of Rev. Nathan Waldo, A. B. in Williamstown, Vermont, February 26, 1806. By Elijah Parish, A. M. pastor of the church in Byfield, Mass. Hanover, N. H. printed by Moses Davis, 8vo. pp. 16.

A Discourse, delivered before the Humane Society of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, June 10, 1806. By Thaddeus Mason Harris, minister of the church in Dorchester. 8vo. pp. 40, Boston, E. Lincoln.

A Sermon, containing reflections on the Solar Eclipse, which appeared on June 16, 1806; delivered on the Lord's day following. By Joseph Lathrop, D.D. pastor of the First Church in West Springfield. Second edition. 8vo, pp. 20. Springfield, Mass. H. Brewer.

A Sermon, preached before the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, by appointment of their standing committee of missions, May 19, 1806. By Eliphalet Nott, D. D. president of Union College, in the state of New-York. 8vo. New-York.

An Address, delivered before the Republican Citizens of Concord, N. H. assembled to celebrate the anniversary of American Independence, Friday, July 4, 1806. By Thomas Waterman, minister of the gospel in Bow, N. H. 8vo. Amherst, Joseph Cushing.

A Masonick Discourse, delivered in Portsmouth, St. John's day, June 24, 1806. By Thomas Beede. Portsmouth, N. H.

American Independence: An Oration, pronounced at New-Bedford, July 4, 1806. By Zabdiel Sampson, A. B. Published by request. 8vo. pp. 16. Boston, Adams & Rhoades.

An Oration, delivered in the Independent Circular Church, before the inhabitants of Charleston, South Carolina, on Friday, the 4th of July, 1806, in commemoration of American Independence, by appointment of the American Revolution Society; published by request of that Society, and the Society of Cincinnati of South-Carolina. By Keating Lewis Simons, a member of the Revolution Society. 8vo. Charleston, Wm. P. Young.

An Oration in commemoration of the independence of federate America, delivered at Stratham, July 4, 1806. By Rev. James Miltimore. Portsmouth.

NEW EDITIONS.

Vol. I. Part II. of The New Cyclopedia, or Dictionary of Arts and Sciences. By Abraham Rees, D.D., F.R.S., editor of the last edition of Mr. Chambers' Dictionary, with the assistance of eminent professional gentlemen. First American edition, revised, corrected, enlarged, and adapted to this country, by several literary and scientifick characters. 4to. Price $3. Philadelphia, S. F. Bradford. Lemuel Blake, No. 1, Cornhill, agent in Boston.

Reflections on the Commerce of the Mediterranean—Deduced from actual experience during a residence on both shores of the Mediterranean sea—containing a particular account of the traffick of the kingdoms of Algiers, Tunis, Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, the Morea, &c.—with an impartial examination into the manners and customs of the inhabitants in their commercial dealings—and a particular description of the manufactures properly adapted for each country. By John Jackson, esq. F.S.A. author of the Journey over land from India, &c. 1 vol. crown octavo. Price $1 extra boards, $1,25 bound. New-York, I. Riley & Co.

Hudibras, a poem, in three parts, by Samuel Butler. With annotations, a complete index, and life of the author. 12mo. pp. 300. Troy. Wright, Goodenow & Stockwell.

The 2d American edition of The Secret History of the Court and Cabinet of St. Cloud. In a series of letters from a gentleman in Paris to a nobleman in London, written during the months of August, September, and October, 1805. 12mo. Philadelphia, J. Watts.

The History of Napoleon Bonaparte, emperour of France and king of Italy, embellished with two engravings; the first a view of the battle of Austerlitz, and the second a plan of the Bastile. 8vo. 1 vol. pp. 416. Price to subscribers, bound, $2 50. Baltimore, Warner and Hanna.

East's Pleas of the Crown, vols. I. and II. Price, bound, $11; boards, $10. New-York, Bernard Dornin.

Wild Flowers, a poem. By Robert Bloomfield, author of the Farmer's Boy, &c. 12mo. Philadelphia, William P. Farrand and J. Johnson.

The Beauties of the Botanick Garden, 12mo. New-York, D. Longworth.

An Introduction to the Study of the Bible: containing proofs of the authenticity and inspiration of the Holy Scriptures; a summary of the history of the Jews; an account of the Jewish sects; and a brief statement of the contents of the several Books of the Old and New Testaments. By George Pretyman, D. D., F.R.S., Lord Bishop of Lincoln.—12mo. Price $1. Philadelphia, James P. Parke, 119, Market street.

The 2d edition of The Christian Monitor, No. I. containing prayers and devotional exercises. 12mo. 30 cents in boards. pp. 200. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

The Contrast: or, the Death-bed of a Free-Thinker, and the Death-bed of a Christian. Exemplified in the last hours of the Hon. Francis Newport, and the Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D. 8vo. pp. 20. Boston, E. Lincoln.

The Encyclopædia of Wit, or Lounger's Library. 1 vol. 12mo. wove paper, pp. 400. Price $1 in boards; $1 25 bound. New-York. William Durell.

IN THE PRESS.

Vol. I. of The Works of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. From the latest London edition. 8vo. Boston, D. Carlisle, for John West and Oliver Cromwell Greenleaf.

The Trials of Colonel William Smith, and Mr. Samuel G. Ogden, before the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of New-York, on the charge of having aided and assisted General Miranda in a military expedition against the Spanish government of Caraccas. Taken in short hand by Thomas Lloyd, Esq. Stenographer to Congress. 1 vol. 8vo. Price to subscribers three-fourths of a cent per page. New-York, Isaac Riley & Co.

The History, Principles, and Practice, ancient and modern, of the legal remedy by Ejectment and the resulting action for mesne-profits, & the evidence in general necessary to sustain and defend them with. With an appendix. By Charles Runnington, serjeant at law. New-York, printed from the last London edition, by B. Dornin.

A Physiological Essay on Yellow-Fever; setting forth the various symptoms attendant thereon, with many useful and critical observations on the line of treatment of the same; and a mode of practice to be attended to in the curative part. By Dr. George Carter, Director General of the Military Hospital of South-Carolina, during the late revolution. Price $1. Charleston, S. Carolina, Mr. Negrin.

The Wife. 1 vol. 12mo. Boston, Andrew Newell.

PROPOSED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

Fenelon's Treatise on the Education of Daughters: Translated from the French, and adapted to English readers, with an original chapter On Religious Studies. By Rev. T. F. Dibdin, B. A., F.A.S. 12mo. 1 vol. with an engraved frontispiece. Price $1 to subscribers. Albany, Backus & Whiting.

The Works of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, philosophical, political, and literary. The work will be elegantly printed on a new small-pica type and pale vellum paper in large octavo. The work will be ornamented with numerous engravings, and a full-length portrait from the best likeness allowed to be in existence. Price $2,50 each vol. Philadelphia, William Duane.

"Marmion," a new poem. From a copy just received from Edinburgh. Superfine woven paper. pp. 450 foolscap 8vo. Pr. in extra boards 75 cts. to subscribers. Boston, Samuel H. Parker.

An Examination into the Belligerent Pretensions of Great-Britain, and the Neutral Rights of the United States of America; in which the numbers of Phocion, relative to the subject, are incidentally answered. By an American. This work will be published in a pamphlet, containing at least 100 pages, exclusive of the appendix, which will contain several valuable and interesting state papers. Price $1. Charleston.

The Father and Daughter, a new novel. By Mrs. Opie. 1 volume 8vo. Price $1 bound to subscribers. Richmond, Vir. Samuel Grantland.

A complete History of the Holy Bible, as contained in the Old and New Testaments, including also the occurrences of 400 years, from the last of the Prophets to the birth of Christ, and the Life of our blessed Saviour and his Apostles, &c. with copious notes, explanatory, practical, and devotional. From the text of the Rev. Laurence Howel, A.M. With considerable additions and improvements, by Rev. George Burder, author of Village Sermons, &c. 3 vols. 8vo. Price bound $2,25 each volume. Philadelphia, Woodward.

Pyrroloimogia; or, Inquiries into the Pestilence called Yellow Fever. Containing the history of its symptoms and prevalence in different parts of the world; a comparative statement of all controversies respecting its origin, modes of propagation, and treatment; with an attempt towards a new theory of the electrical phenomena and Galvanick influence arising from terraqueous and putrid exhalations, which explains the cause of pestilential diseases, their remedies and preventatives. By Felix Pascalis, M. D. of New-York, formerly physician and member of the board of health in the state of Pennsylvania, honourary member of the Medical Societies of Philadelphia, &c. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 300 each. Pr. in boards to subscribers $5 the set, or $6 bound. New-York.

INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Bronson, Editor of the United States Gazette, is preparing to put to press a new and very interesting work, entitled, "Original Anecdotes of Frederick II. King of Prussia, and of his Family, his Court, his Ministers, his

Academies, and his literary Friends: collected during a familiar intercourse of twenty years with that prince. Translated from the French of Dieudonne Thiebault, Professor of Belles Lettres in the Royal Academy of Berlin."

We understand that a subterraneous cavern has been discovered within a few days, on the turnpike road in Manlius, about three miles from the square, in Onondago county, New-York. The circumstances attending this discovery are somewhat singular. A Mr. Beckwith, inn-keeper, in digging a well, having descended about 25 feet, came immediately upon the cave, or a cavity at the bottom, about 3 feet in depth, and 3 or 4 in diameter, filled with pure water; upon which a candle was let down, and the discovery completed. A passage was found, extending north and south (across the road) a considerable distance; it was explored about 80 feet each way, much to the gratification of its visitants, among whom was our informant. The entrance into the cavern from the bottom of the well is 7 or 8 feet high, but very narrow; an equal height was preserved through the whole passage, excepting at one place to the northward, in which persons are obliged to crawl a short distance; the width of the aperture is unequal, being in some parts barely sufficient to admit a common sized person; but in the southern part there is one gradual globular expansion of many feet. The sides of the cave appear to be limestone, through which water constantly oozes, and forms a small stream that runs to the northward through the whole explored avenue. The sides are decorated with various excrescences, some resembling pillars, extending from top to bottom, and others in an inverted conical form, all having the appearance of grey marble, with small regular ridges, evidently denoting their gradual formation. The rill purling under foot, the transparence of the sides of the cavern as exhibited by the clear blaze of the candle, and the reflections naturally produced by the situation of a visitant, are said to be truly delightful. A vein of ore, supposed to be copper or brass, is also said to be found in the cave.—*Herkimer Monitor.*

Mr. W. H. Ireland, whose fabrication of the Shakspeare MSS. excited so much attention a short time since in England, has written an amusing book, containing his confession of all the circumstances which attended that literary forgery, relating not only to the papers, but to the various personages who distinguished themselves while the controversy continued.

Brisban and Brannan, of New-York, have just published, in a small pocket volume neatly printed, "The Life of Lamorgnon Malesherbes," formerly French minister of state during the reign of the last Louis, a work of uncommon merit.

"It exhibits the outlines of a character, distinguished most eminently by purity and worth; and at the same time, recommended by all the advantages which are conferred by family, rank, and accomplishments both elegant and solid.—Europe, in the eighteenth century, does not furnish an invidual of greater interest and on whose history the mind dwells with more satisfaction and delight. The narrative, indeed, has little to boast on the score of method or arrangement: but, as it details the most interesting passages in the life of such a man, it cannot fail to engage attention, and is entitled to a considerable share of notice."

Statement of Diseases from July 20 to August 20.

THE weather of the past month has been much cooler than common. The winds from the south-west, east, and more frequently from the north-west than usual at this season.

The most prevalent disease has been a mild typhus, attended in many cases with affection of the intestinal canal; it has scarcely been fatal in any instance. Diarrhœa and dysentery have prevailed in some degree, but they have submitted readily to medicine. Cholera infantum has been comparatively rare.

No great number of patients have been vaccinated during the month. The cause of this is principally an *erroneous* notion, that the *vaccine-pock*, analogous to the small pox, will not operate so favourably during the summer, as in the spring and autumn.

EDITORS' NOTE.—We hope that the gentleman, who sent the Sans Souci, No. 2, will excuse us for the alteration we have made in his arrangement. We can assure him, that contributions from him will be very acceptable.

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

SEPTEMBER, 1806.

For the Anthology.

THE SCHOOLS OF PAINTING AND THE MASTERS.

There is no subject of inquiry, more important to the study of human understanding, than that, which relates to the first action of genius ; or, to use the expression of an idea rather than a term vacant of it, that impulse of intellect, which propels an individual to the achievement of some sublime design. It has been this bright principle, which has shot light through the immeasurable extent of the regions of the imagination, produced a splendid medium to the mental vision, and presented new objects of beauty, grandeur, and delight. What philosophy has done in disciplining the forces of the understanding, the ARTS have performed in civilizing and refining them. The stubborniness of prejudice and the awkwardness of pedantry, which have followed the rigour of her imposition, have been won by their tenderness and grace. The maxims of the profound Stagirite, and even the pomp of Philip, might never have roused the mighty spirit of Alexander, if the glory of Achilles had not sprung from the fancy of Homer. Even the hardness and cruelty of millions, mingled in war and slaughter, have been melted by the stealing influence of their charms, and the sound of the clashing of armour and of the clangour of trumpets has lengthened, and subsided in distance, that the lyre might sweep over the ear, in the deep tones and faint vibrations of inspiration.

It is not merely poetry, that kindles the passions into a pure and regular flame, and excites the whole mass of our natures into a motion of feeling and sympathy. They burst likewise from our hearts, with the sight of the enchanting surface of the picture, and with the representation of the various expressions and attitudes of beauty and grace in the forms of sculpture. Painting and sculpture imitate, and, by infinite combinations, even *improve*, nature. Poetry describes her. Thousands of separate, natural beauties are thus gathered, and concentrated into one imaginary perfection. Apelles so forcibly expressed power in his figure of Alexander, that the thunder seemed rushing from his hand, to destroy the spectator ; and his Anadyomene was so lovely, that the painter even became charmed with the fiction of his own creation. He, who has not gazed on the tortures of the Laocoon, hardly has felt the emotions of pity ; and he, who has once beheld the Apollo and Venus, can never look again, for grace of form and loveliness of limb, on the human figure. The Madonas of Raphael and Guido, Corregio and Sassaferetto, fill and purify the soul with divine love, and the Last Judgment of Michael Angelo brightens the conscience with more heavenly light, or overspreads it with a thicker gloom, than all that theological rhetorick has effected.

Some account of the orders of painting, and of those, who are ranked as classical painters, may be useful, if not interesting ; but to those, to whom it is useful, it ought to be interesting. For fuller information the reader is referred to the Abbé Richard.

The Roman school ranks the first, and dates its institution at the time of Raphael, who has always been acknowledged as its chief. This school is particularly distinguished for peculiar beauty, correctness of design, and elegance of composition ; the truth of expression, and intelligence of attitudes. The able masters of this school have principally formed themselves on the study of the antique. The most of the Roman school have attended less to colour, than to the sublime expression and solemn style of their figures, awakening in the mind of those, who behold them, all the grand emotions, with which they themselves were struck. By this style they acquired a supremacy, and their pictures hold the highest rank amongst the Painters.

The Florence school has for its founders Leonardo de Vinci, and Michael Angelo Bounarotti. These great artists have transmitted to their students a manner, strong and bold, and a sublimity of style and gigantick expression, which, though often beyond nature, is always magnificent.

The Lombard school has united all the qualities, which form the perfection of the art. To the study of the antique, on which it has formed itself for design, as well as the Roman and Florentine schools, it has joined all the most lively, beautiful, and sensible parts of nature ; it has also assembled all the science and graces of the art. Corregio is considered as the first painter and master of this school. Amongst his scholars were Parmegiano, Schedoni, the Carracci, Guido, &c.

The Venetian school is remarkable for the perfection, with which its painters have imitated nature. Their colouring is exquisite. You observe a discrimination of light and shade, and touches of the pencil, most gracious and lovely, in all the pictures of Titian and Paul Veronese. These great artists, however, seem to have neglected that design, so essential to perfection.

These are the four great schools, which have produced works, which seem destined to remain forever superiour to human art and imitation.

The French school has studied the Italian, and Poussin has altogether followed the Roman.

The Flemish school has done much by the works of Rubens and Vandyke. In Italy they are even esteemed artists of an illustrious order. Vandyke for portrait disputes the first rank, and Rubens in history and allegory yields to none. Their colouring is so pure and bright, that a constant freshness and glow is ever on their figures. The Flemish school is remarkable for labour and nicety, and the closest imitation of nature. Delicacy and patience of the pencil are peculiarly observed in all their pictures.

Having now given these short sketches of the illustrious and ancient academies of painting, we proceed to the drudgery of births, dates, and deaths.

OF THE ROMAN SCHOOL.

Raphael Sanzio, born at Urbin A. D. 1483, died 1520. He is esteemed the most perfect of the painters. His genius was of the highest intelligence. Grace and love make all his female figures angels, and refined dignity and majesty elevate his men into the nature and form of the gods. As you behold the "SCHOOL OF ATHENS," you are at once in the midst of the awful solemnity of the *Academia* of Plato. The heads of his philosophers are full of venerable wisdom; their visage solemn, and fixed in the holiness of meditation. His Parnassus partakes much of the air of the heavens, and the gods, who have lit on it, have brought, from the other world, forms that cannot be described.—But was ever a spot so pleasant for Apollo to rest upon, in his aërial course, and divert himself with the sound of his lyre! His great works are at Rome, in the Vatican, with the exception of the *Transfiguration*, *St. Cecilia*, and the *Virgine del Sedia.*

Julio Romano, born 1492, died 1546; the favourite pupil of Raphael. His colouring is faint and feeble, but his figures tender and delicate.

Polidore, born 1495, died 1543. His colouring is fine, his design correct, and his heads remarkable for strength.

Perino de Bonacorri, born 1500, died 1547; he painted at the Vatican under the instruction of Raphael, whom he so closely imitated, that many of his pictures pass for those of his master.

Innocentio de Imola, pupil of Raphael; he designed much like his great master. His pictures are rare and valuable.

Frederico Barroci, born 1528, died 1612; his pictures are very striking; he resembled Corregio much in the beauty of his colouring; his heads are particularly graceful.

Dominichino, born at Rome, 1589, died 1624. He copied the Antique, and Julio Románo. His imagination was full of spirit and genius. His pictures striking, and remarkable for the sombre tone of their colouring.

Claude Lorrain, born 1600, died 1682, at Rome. He is considered the first of the landscape painters. His beauty is in the aërial perspective and distance of his painting, and in his power of displaying nature. But he failed in the figures in his landscapes. Those, that are good, are by his scholar Bourgignon.

Andrea Sacchi, born at Rome, 1599, died 1661; a painter worthy of the finest period of the art. His pictures are of admirable design, and full of grace and tenderness, and glowing with the colouring of his master Albano.

Salvator Rosa, born 1614, died 1673. His pictures are full of truth and nature strongly expressed; he seemed to have studied nature only. He excelled in battles, ferocious animals, and wild landscapes.

Michael Angelo de Carravagio, born 1569, died 1609. His pictures are remarkable for depth of shade, and style of nature.

OF THE FLORENTINE SCHOOL.

Cimabue, born 1230, died 1300. He is regarded as the father of modern painting. He learnt the art from some Grecian painters at Florence, and he imitated them with much spirit.

Leonardo da Vinci, born 1445, died 1520; also sculptor and architect; the greatest genius, which has graced the fine arts. His famous picture of the Last Supper was painted in fresco in the refectory of the Convent of Dominicans, in Milan. The modern Gauls, on their first inroad into Italy, attempted to cut out the wall to make this one of their spoils of painting; but failing in their purpose, with their wonted barbarity they reduced its beauty and magnificence into a state of ruin and decay, and the Last Supper of Leonardo is now extant only by its masterly preservation in the engraving of Morghens. He was the first painter of his age, and died in the arms of Francis I.

Pietro Perrugino, born 1446, died 1524. The heads of his figures are full of grace and beauty; his colouring is faint.

Bartolameo della Porto, born 1465, died 1517. He taught Raphael colouring.

Michael Angelo Bounarotti, born in Florence 1475, died 1564; so well known as the greatest painter, sculptor, and architect of modern times. His principal pictures are in fresco, in the Vatican. His statue of *Moses* is ranked with the antique. There is about it a supernatural majesty and grandeur, which constitute as much original character, as force and strength do in the Farnese Hercules. Had Michael Angelo have done no more than his *Moses*, his fame would remain forever among the sculptors of antiquity; but the figures of *Morning and Evening Twilight*, and of *Day and Night*, in the Medici Chapel at Florence, sprung also from his infinite genius. His picture of the LAST JUDGMENT is the work of an age, and the great sketch of all that is mighty and majestick in the art. The imagination is forever falling in the abyss of hell, drawn by his demons, or rising into the highest heavens on the rustling motion of his angels.

Andrea del Sarto, born 1478, died 1530, is among the first painters of this school. His manner is large and his pencil soft and delicate, and his pictures have yet a wonderful freshness. He is esteemed the greatest colourist of his school. His pictures are chiefly in Florence, particularly in the church *del' Annunziazione*, belonging to the convent of the Dominicans. They are in fresco, and wonderfully fresh. Michael Angelo is said to have sat for hours to study his picture of the *Virgin on the sack.*

OF THE LOMBARD SCHOOL.

Antonio Allegro, called *Il Corregio*, born 1494, died 1534. Nature and genius made Corregio a painter, he having seen nothing of the masters. He painted much before he knew his own perfection, and discovered it by comparing his powers with a picture of Raphael. No one has been able to imitate the enchanting tints and mellow softness of the pencil of Corregio.

Francisco Massuotti, called *Il Parmegiano*; his manner is graceful, his colouring fresh and natural, and the drapery of his figures graceful and flowing.

Pelegrine Tibaldi, a good painter and fine architect, born 1522, died 1592.

Luca Cambiagi. His pictures are bold. He painted with great facility and expedition, being able to paint with both hands at once.

I Carracci, *Loudovico ; Augustino* and *Annibale* ; born at Bologna about 1560. Annibale is considered the greatest, his designs being grand, his colouring strong, and composition admirable. Their pictures are chiefly at Bologna. They there had a school of painting, where Guido, Albano, and Schedoni formed themselves.

Bartholomeo Schedoni, born 1560, died 1616, he closely imitated Corregio.

Guido Rheni, born at Bologna, 1575, died 1640. All that is tender, beautiful, and lovely in nature is in his pictures. The visage and form of his women are full of beauty and love. His most famous picture is that of *Peter and Paul* in the Palace Zampierri, at Bologna. He is said to have studied much the theatre of Niobe, and thereby attained that enchanting beauty, which remains unequalled.

Albano, born 1578, died 1660. His pictures show much attention, nicety, and fine colouring ; his infants are remarkable for beauty and nature.

Benedetto Castigliane, born at Genoa, 1616, died 1670. He imitated all the painters with success, and excelled all in pastoral scenes and landscapes. The touches of his pencil delicate, and his light pure.

OF THE VENETIAN SCHOOL.

I Bellini, brothers, are considered as the founders of this school, born between 1440 and 1445, and lived to a great age ; their pictures remarkable for clear and bright colouring. They were the masters of Georgione and Titian.

Il Georgione deserves a rank amongst the first painters, born 1477, died 1511 ; his colouring is beautiful, and his pictures full of nature. His portraits admirable.

Titiano, born 1477. The death of Georgione, at so early a period, gave full scope to his genius, and he became the head of the school of Venice. The expression and colouring of his figures and landscapes are in the fulness of nature, and his portraits teem with fresh and perpetual life. In this last branch of the art he excels all others.

Sebastiano del Piombo : he was a successful scholar of Georgione. He was considered by Michael Angelo the first painter of his age, superiour even to Raphael. The famous *Descent of the Cross*, in fresco, at Rome, was sketched by this great master, and finished by Sebastiano.

Gio Antonio Gegillo, born 1508, died 1580. He was a powerful rival of Titian.

Paolo Veronese, born 1532, died 1588. His pictures will forever delight by their fulness of composition, beauty of colouring, and gracefulness of design.

The churches of Rome, as well as of the other principal cities of Italy, have for ages been the hallowed sanctuaries of the magnificent works of these great masters. Some of them have been violated by the sacrilegious hands of French soldiers ; and the Holy Virgin, who was drawn to shed a benign look on the devotee at the altar, is now smiling on the prinking Parisian *petit maitre*, in the Louvre.

The French have, in some measure, been to the modern Romans what the ancient were to Greece, with this difference, the Romans took from Greece all that was minutely beautiful and exquisite in the arts ; the French have despoiled Rome only of what was most striking and celebrated. Their hands were first laid on the Laocoon, the Apollo, the Venus, and the Venus of the Capitol, and on the six pictures, which, by distinction of pre-eminence, were called the *Six pictures of Rome*, viz. *The Communion of St. Jerome*, by Dominichino; *the Slaughter of the Innocents*, by Guido; *the Descent of the Cross*, by Sebastiano del Piombo, as sketched by Michael Angelo; *the Transfiguration*, of Raphael; *the Last Judgment*, of Michael Angelo; and *the Last Supper*, by Leonardo da Vinci. The first and second of these, together with the *Transfiguration*, they succeeded in transporting to the Louvre; the others, being in fresco, they could not remove. But, in the barbarous attempt, the Last Supper, and the Descent of the Cross were ruined. M.

BIOGRAPHY.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, Eng.

[Continued from page 414.]

> *Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.*
>
> PLATO, de Legib. IV.

TO return to Johnson. While he was censuring another writer for *egotisms*, he should have excluded them more carefully from his preface, in which the *de se dicta* are infinitely too numerous.

At the end of the first part of these remarks, for he afterwards continued them, though in a less elaborate manner, through the rest of Horace's works, he published a stanza of an old English ballad, with English annotations, in the style of Bentley. There is some drollery in these remarks, but they never can diminish the value of his criticisms. Mr. Addison's tragedy of Cato was once burlesqued,* and Gray's Elegy in a country churchyard has been frequently parodied. Homer and Virgil have been travestied; yet surely no reader ever perused these authors with less pleasure on this account. The test of truth † will never be found in ridicule.

These remarks were highly extolled by Bentley's enemies, and acquired their author some reputation. He had already introduced himself to the learned world, by his "Grammatical Commentaries," which were notes on Lilly's Grammar, published in 1706, in English. He was a very accurate grammarian, and investigated authorities with uncommon perseverance. As a critick, he was able to judge with accuracy of the Latinity of a phrase, but he was very deficient of taste, that rare qualification, which is so essential in the formation of a sound critick. The style of his commentaries is beneath criticism, at once vulgar and pedantick. Those who have read his book, without any knowledge of the time in which he lived, will scarcely believe that he was contemporary with Addison, and lived in the Augustan age of English literature.

In 1716 or 1717, Bentley was elected Regius Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, and soon after preached before his Majesty. The sermon was published. The attack on it, and the answer, we have already mentioned. But this and

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* See Wilkes' History of the Stage.

† See Johnson's lives.

Johnson's *Aristarchus Anti-Bentleianus*, were not the only source of uneasiness which opened upon him in the year 1717. He found himself involved in a dispute with the University, about the fees which were usually paid by Doctors of Divinity on their creation. He was likewise accused of contempt towards the Vice-Chancellor.

This dispute originated in October, on the day after his Majesty's visit to the University, when several Doctors in Divinity, who had been named by the royal mandate, attended at the senate house to receive their degrees. Dr. Bentley, on creation, demanded four guineas from each, besides the broad piece, which was the usual present on such occasions. A warm dispute ensued, but on his absolutely refusing to create those who would not give the extraordinary fee, Dr. Middleton and some others agreed to pay the money, upon condition that the Professor should return it, whenever it was declared by the King, or by any authority delegated from him, that the demand was illegal. Those who refused to acquiesce to this proposal he would not create doctors.

The affair was laid before the Duke of Somerset, who was Chancellor of the University, and promised to take cognizance of the affair, if it was not soon settled. Dr. Bentley, however, still insisted upon his claim, but at last was contented with a promissory note from several of them, by which they engaged to pay the fee, if the dispute was determined in his favour, and even without money or bond he submitted to create one of the King's doctors.

As the Chancellor had declared against this new fee, and as Dr. Bentley had created some doctors, without either fee or note, Dr. Middleton thought himself entitled to demand the return of his four guineas, although neither the sentiments of the King, nor of his lawyers, had pronounced the Professor's claim unjust.

Bentley refused to give back the money; Dr. Middleton sent, and then called: but the message and the visit proved equally fruitless. He next obtained a decree from the Vice-Chancellor, and a known enemy of the Professor was sent on September 23d, to arrest his person: either through mistake or design, however, the decree was left at Trinity Lodge, and the orders of the Vice-Chancellor were not executed. On Wednesday, the first of October, another beadle arrested him, and the Doctor, though he refused to obey it at first, put in bail, and the following Friday was appointed for the day of trial.

Dr. Bentley did not appear, but sent his proctor. Dr. Middleton obtained permission of the court to appoint another proctor for himself, who accused the Professor of contempt, for not appearing. The beadle who went with the first decree was examined, and a complaint was made out of his ill usage at Trinity Lodge. Among other things it appeared that the Doctor had said, "I will not be concluded by what the Vice-Chancellor and two or three of his friends shall determine over a bottle."

His words were accounted criminal, and Dr. Bentley was suspended by the Vice-Chancellor from all his degrees, without citation, without hearing, without notice, who declared that he would vacate the Divinity Professorship in a few days, if he did not make humble submission.

For several years the affair remained in this situation. During this time several pamphlets were published. Of those against the Professor, Dr. Middleton, who must have felt the most unbounded exultation on the degradation of his enemy, Dr. Bentley, was the principal author.* These are sprightly and well written, but *facts are obstinate antagonists.* The names of the writers who answered him, and took the opposite side, we have never heard, though one of them is pointed out by Middleton, who began his literary career in this dispute,† and now first started into publick notice, as the action "which he commenced for the recovery of his money gave the first motion to this famous proceeding."

During this suspense, it might be supposed, that Bentley, degraded from his honours, would have lost his relish for his classical pursuits, and have found his spirits damped and courage sunk. But this was far from being the case: he gave no opportunity to his enemies to exclaim,

"Qualis erat! Quantum mutatus ab illo!"

He ceased to be Doctor of Divinity, indeed, but he never ceased to be Bentley! The University stripped him of his degrees, but they could not tear from him that conscious dignity of character, which, in all his disputes, proved a firm and certain support.

He still continued to bestow his attention and leisure time on his long-promised and long expected edition of the Greek Testament. About the year 1721, he published his proposals, which consisted of eight articles. To these he added the last chapter of the Apocalypse, with a Latin version, and the various readings of the manuscripts in the notes.

In this edition Bentley intended to have republished the Latin version of St. Hierom, who asserts that a literal translation from Greek into Latin is only necessary in the scriptures, *where the very order of the words is mystery.* From this passage our critick inferred, what on examination he found to be true, that on comparison the exactest resemblance would be found between the original text and this translation. He, therefore, determined to publish them together.

He proposed to confirm his lections, by exhibiting the various reading of manuscripts and translations. He altered not a single word without authority. He offered no changes in the text, except in his *Prolegomena.* He adopted the mode of publishing by subscription, on account of the great expenses that must attend the printing of such a work. It was to have made two volumes in folio, and the price was to have been three guineas for the smaller paper, and five for the larger. Mr. John Walker, of Trinity College,* was to have corrected the press, and to have shared the profits or loss of the edition with Bentley.

In one part of these proposals he says of himself: "In this work he is of no sect or party; his design is to serve the whole christian name; he draws no consequences in his notes, makes no oblique glances upon any disputed points, old or new. He consecrates this work, as a *Κειμήλιον*, a *Κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί*, a *Charter*, a *Magna Charta* to the whole Christian Church, to last when all the ancient manuscripts have quoted may be lost and extinguished."

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* For a list of them see Gough's British Topography, vol. I. p. 244. Thirlby also wrote against Bentley.

† In one of his pamphlets he styles himself *an author not used to the press.*

*The Vice-Master of Trinity College, whom Pope introduced with Bentley into the Dunciad.

Such were the views of Dr. Bentley, and such were his wishes with regard to his edition of the Greek Testament. He found, however, an opponent in Middleton, who had already, in a great measure, been the cause of reducing him to the situation of the lowest member of the University. He published an answer to the proposals, paragraph by paragraph. He was instigated to publish this answer, he says, by a thorough conviction, that Bentley possessed neither *materials* nor *abilities* adequate to the execution of so important a design.

This pamphlet was published at a period when the name of Bentley had lost part of its dignity. This may, in some measure, account for its success, which was wonderful, and, in our opinion, far above its deserts. It is well written, indeed, and sometimes weighty in argument; but still he frequently refines too much, and does not treat his adversary with candour or propriety.

An answer was published to these remarks, which was attributed to Bentley, and several pamphlets were published on both sides of the question. The event was, that he gave up his design. It were an endless task to pursue the disputes through all the pamphlets, which were published on the occasion. We must not, however, omit that Dr. Colbatch was supposed to be the author of the *first remarks*, and was stigmatized in the answer, which was published with the second edition of the proposal. Upon this attack, he publickly declared, that they were written without his concurrence and knowledge, and the Vice-Chancellor and heads pronounced the answer to the remarks a virulent and scandalous libel.

Bentley never assigned any reasons for declining the publication of his Greek Testament. All who contributed to this event certainly injured the cause of sacred literature in the highest degree. The completion of his design was the principal employment of his latter life; and his nephew, Dr. Thomas Bentley, travelled through Europe, at his expense, in order to collate every manuscript that was accessible.

Middleton was not the only champion who attacked our literary Goliah in 1721. Alexander Cuninghame, in the same year, published animadversions on the edition of Horace. A cold, cross critick, of northern extraction, with little genius; ill-natured and forbidding; correct, but spiritless. He dedicated his book to Bentley himself, but with such a marked air of imagined superiority, that it is absolutely disgusting. Let it not, however, be supposed, that we allow him no merit. We think that he was an opponent of much greater consequence, than any who preceded him; but his decisive mode of stating his objections, and offering his own emendations, though it might attract a few admirers, yet it must be condemned by the learned world in general. Sometimes, indeed, he improves greatly upon Bentley, and in one of the passages, which we formerly quoted, he would read *æstuatque*, instead of *ejus atque*, which is certainly more poetical and better than *exeatque*, though, perhaps, not so near the reading of the manuscripts. His corrections, indeed, are frequently valuable, but, as a writer, he is very deficient in that strength, that vigour, and that liveliness of fancy, which renders the critical works of Bentley and Toup so entertaining, as well as so instructive.

To be continued.

NATURAL HISTORY.

For the Anthology.

EXTRACTS FROM A JOURNAL, &c. CONTINUED.

Monday, Sept. 2....WHAT have I heard? What have I felt? What have I seen? A noise, equal to the seven thunders, heard by St. John in the spirit; accompanied with a perpetual earthquake, and a mighty rushing wind; a wonder, to which the sun in his course through the heavens, beholds nothing superiour...the cataract of Niagara.

After breakfast we started from Chippeway on foot. The bank of the great river is here not more than four or five feet above the water; but, in our course towards the falls, it appears gradually to rise to fifty feet and upwards. The land, on which the road runs, is perhaps a perfect level; of course this high bank shews the descent of the river in its course of two miles before arriving at the immense precipice. About one mile from Chippeway commence the rapids, extending across the river above half a mile; immediately below, it narrows and its surface is much agitated, although no rocks appear above the water. This is indeed a very beautiful view.

Here, where a small part of the stream is divided from the rest by a little island, fast on the bank of the river, man has adventured to erect mills, "scooped out an empire, and usurp'd the tide." A few rods lower, in a similar situation, is the oldest mill in Canada. At all other falls, I have ever seen, the labours of man have tended to diminish the effect on the eye and the mind; but here the consequences of his mightiest efforts have so little influence on the whole, that we are convinced of the majesty of the stream, and that it will forever scorn the confinements of art.

About two and a half miles down we turn from the road, and, descending a winding foot path in the precipitous bank of clay, come to the level of the river; and, after walking over a flat, covered with thick bushes and constantly wet by the spray, arrive at Table rock. Just before leaving the road, we had seen the little falls, a sight, worthy of a thousand miles journey; but we are now close to the main body of this indescribable cataract. Table rock is level with the edge of the falls, and only seven or eight rods distant. Here is, in the stillest season, a constant gentle breeze, agitating the leaves of the bushes, while they are continually refreshed by the spray. On our hands and knees we creep to the edge of this rock, and are struck with horrour at beholding nothing to support us. Our guide carries us a rod or two north, as the river runs, and shews us the rock, on which we walked so firmly, which is only three feet thick, and seems to hang in the air, perhaps one hundred and fifty feet or more from the bottom. One of our party swore he never would go on it again.

Leaving this spot, we reascend to the level of the road, and walk half a mile through fields, clothed with the most luxuriant grass, to a ladder, called, by Volney, Simcoe's, but it has not usually that or any other name. This ladder is perpendicular, and, as it is affixed to an overhanging tree at the top, seems very dangerous, but others had been before us, and we descend with courage, which we should never exercise at any other place, than Niagara. At the foot of the ladder we find we have not descended half way to the water's edge; and here and all the way up to the great falls, we have to climb over crags of every variety of shape and size.

The little falls are opposite to the ladder, but we neither hear nor see any thing, but the immense horse shoe we are approaching. Between the two falls is Goat island, presenting on the north side a perpendicular wall of equal height with the cataracts on each side. The bank on the west side of the river, under which we now were, is perpendicular, but, as we approach the sheet of water, it becomes hollow, and thus, say the traveller's conjectures, is it continued the whole width of the falls, making a cavern, terrifick as incalculable extent, unilluminated vacuity, and eternal roar can make it. The water above, having acquired a powerful impetus, shoots in a curvilinear direction, and thus the hollow space is increased. Into this abyss we all attempt to penetrate. The spray is here condensed into large drops, and the strong gusts of wind drive it like shot, so that we involuntarily bend our heads. We were nearly wet through before, but are now instantaneously. We can hardly consent to leave this seemingly dangerous, and enchanting spot.

On the rocks I find a skull of some animal, and bones of others, which have come over the fall; also something, which Weld calls petrified spray or froth, adhering to the rocks in various states of induration. This substance is often no harder than lumps in West-India sugar, but is tasteless.

When viewing the Horse shoe fall, travellers are always dissatisfied at its apparent height; but this results from its immense breadth, and perhaps half is always invisible, on account of the mist, rising from below. If from Table rock, or at the landing place by the ladder, or at any place between these, we look down, or if from below we view the precipice above, and reflect, that this awful rock is no higher than the cataract, we become easy in a moment. In the morning or evening I suppose the centre of the crescent, or horse shoe, cannot be seen for the spray, not even from Table rock; but when the wind blows this away, we behold at least half the height.

A small part, perhaps fifteen feet in width, is separated from the little fall, and adds much to the effect. We almost wish there were no horse shoe fall, as this is viewed from the head of the ladder; but when a little higher up, the great fall, which is much the greater division of the river, opens upon us, the inferiour fall appears only like the puny infant of a vigorous sire.

After refreshing ourselves with some port wine and bread, two of our party were so wearied with magnificence and wet cloaths, as to depart for home. B—— and myself revisited Table rock with less fear, and viewed more closely the tremendous fall. It was now about one o'clock. Below us we saw a rainbow of transcendent splendour. The ends were nearly under our feet, and the top of the arch reached more than half a mile, just encroaching on the foot of the little falls. We then walked into the river, and stood just under a fall of about three feet, drank of the stream, and washed on the top of this rock in water, ready to pour in half a minute over the precipice into the vast profound.

Here we observed a small bird, perched on a rock in the stream, nearer the fall than any human being would venture. We threw stones at him, and remarked the horrour, with which he looked towards the chasm. After several flights in circles, he was obliged to approach us to avoid greater danger.

We returned and changed our dress; and, after breathing, I can now relate a story or two, told by our guide. Below the rapids, in the middle of the stream, is formed a shallow, part of which is covered with grass. To this deer sometimes swim with the current, but can never return. The poor creatures are swept away by the stream, and their carcases are found at the foot of the falls. But every thing is not lodged near the falls below. Only six weeks ago an Indian squaw, drowned at Chippeway, was found at Queenstown, seven or eight miles below the cataract, with only her neck and thigh broken.

On returning to dinner, we found that Chippeway bridge had broken through during our absence. This we crossed yesterday; but if we had fallen through, as there is no current perceptible in this inferiour river, we might perhaps have escaped being shown at Queenstown.

After dinner we tackled our waggon and drove towards the falls, stopping at a house, which ought to be a tavern. We did not visit Table rock, as we wished not to wet our clean cloaths; but we walked down the fields, to the head of the ladder, and T—— went down. We enjoyed very fine views, and resolved on a grand expedition to be once more wet through to-morrow.

Tuesday. Reviewed the scenes of yesterday. Our first visit was to Table rock, in which we observed a small crack, and we speculated on it with unreasonable fear, for it cannot run deep. This famous rock projects nine or ten feet, and is of uniform thickness. Its immense supporter is hollowed gradually, and a line dropped from the edge of the rock would be, I think, forty or fifty feet from the centre of the concave.

Once more we descend the ladder, and approach the horrid vacuity behind the sheet of water. Within eight rods of the cataract is a collection of sulphur, deposited on the side of the rock by a little stream, percolating this bed of limestone. This is nearly under Table rock, which, if it should now break off from its stock, would fall without the path, and only endanger us by the pieces, into which it must fly on striking the bottom. But indeed there is no danger. The water once poured over this rock, and it should then have yielded to the immense pressure.

Very strong and cold gusts of wind blow perpetually out of the cavern, accompanied with rain, so thick, as, when a person is near, totally to intercept the sight. Here we all stop, and each runs as far as possible into this viewless and horrible abyss. I almost despaired of ever seeing T—— again, so violent was the beating of the wind and the rain; yet he could not have been absent from where I stood more than two minutes.

We afterwards went to the shore as near, where the water strikes the rock after its fall, as possible. Here is a great spray, and the roar is really stupifying. But if we look upwards, the view of the sun beams, gleaming through the drops broken off from the sheet of water, and these drops so near as to strike at last in our faces, is truly enchanting. We climbed a crag, broken from above, on which it seemed impossible to remain, for the whole ocean seems falling on our heads; but it does not quite reach us, and we are only refreshed by the plentiful dashing of the water below. But here no one feels uncomfortable from the wet, and nobody ever here took a cold.

The Horse shoe fall resembles rather a sickle, and in what seems the handle near Goat island, close to the very edge of the precipice, are several loose rocks, that must come down in a few months. I am very sure, that yesterday I heard the crash of a rock, carried over the falls, or a part of the precipice broken away. This was just on my arrival at the foot of the ladder.

At the distance of an eighth of a mile, on the shore of the river below the falls, one may have a very fine view. Stoop downwards, with your back towards the cataract, and look up at the top of it. There seems to be nothing above. It pours from the very battlements of heaven, or resembles the restoration of chaos. Look again, and you behold trees, which your amazement forbade you to see before, growing out of the very edge of the cataract in the deepest part. The deception is admirable, and, I think, unequalled by any vagary of nature. But these trees are nearly a mile distant on the high banks of the river, whose course thence to the precipice is nearly crooked, as a semi-circle. Any one will easily believe what Goldsmith soberly says, that these falls are a great interruption to navigation, though it is doubtful whether any would follow the Indians, who, he says, have passed down safely in their canoes.

CRITICISM.

Translated for the Anthology from the Cours de Literature of La Harpe.

[Continued from page 348.]

Nero, now sure of the love of Junia for Britannicus, meditates nothing but vengeance and crimes. He orders his brother to be arrested; he places guards over his own mother, and perceiving, by a conversation with her, that the rights of Britannicus to the empire may be employed as an arm against him, he hesitates not a moment, and gives orders to poison him. But how! With what odious cold blood and what studied villany! It is by appearing to reconcile himself with Agrippina and Britannicus; by lavishing his caresses, submissions, and embraces; and by representing in his palace a scene of filial tenderness.

Guards! obey the orders of my mother.

Gards ! qu'on obeisse aux ordres de ma mere.

In this manner he prepares himself for a fratricide.

And this is that policy of corrupt courts, of which Corneille affected to treat so often; but here it is in action, and not in words; that is to say, it is in theatrical representation the same thing as it is in reality; it is the perfection of the art. Nero conducted no otherwise than Charles the Ninth. Agrippina had scarcely left him, when his dissimulated rage could no longer contain itself: he thinks himself sure of Burrhus, because Agrippina is discontented with him; and it is before a virtuous man, that he avows the project of a crime, and that crime is poisoning.

She is too much in haste, Burrhus, to triumph,
I embrace my rival, but it is to strangle him.
. . . It is too much: his ruin
Must deliver me forever from the furies of Agrippina.
As long as he breathes, I live but by halves.;
She has disgusted me with the name of my enemy,
And I will not endure her guilty assurance
In promising him a second time my place.
Before the close of this day I will dread him no more.

Elle se hâte trop, Burrhus, de triumpher,
J'embrasse mon rival, mais c'est pour l'etouffer.
. . . C'en est trop: il faut que sa ruine
Me delivre à jamais des fureurs d'Agrippine.
Tant qu'il respirera, je ne vis qu'à demi;
Elle m'a fatigué de ce nom ennemi,
Et je ne pretend pas, que sa coupable audace
Une seconde fois lui promette ma place.
Avant la fin du jour, je ne le craindrai plus.

To speak thus to Burrhus, is to shew the whole character of Nero. None but a consummate villain can, without blushing, shew himself as he is, before an honest man; it is a proof that he has surmounted every thing, even his conscience. Other villains take off the mask, sometimes before confidants worthy of them: none but Nero can unbosom himself before Burrhus. This example is singular on the theatre, and it is a trait of genius. Mahomet conceals not from Zopira his policy or his ambition; but there is a grandeur in his projects, criminal as they are; he hopes to gain Zopira, and he has her in his power. Here is nothing of all this. Nero avows the most cowardly of all crimes, and yet has no need of Burrhus to execute them. This confidence without necessity, and made from the fulness of the heart, would be, any where else, a great fault: here it is a stroke of the pencil of a great master. It is evident that Nero does not believe himself committing a crime; in his eyes it is the most simple thing in the world to poison his brother; and that which proves this is, that he is quite astonished when Burrhus disapproves; and in the following scene he says to Narcissus, as the only thing that gives him any hesitation,

They will represent my revenge, as a parricide.

Ils mettront ma vengeance au rang des parricides.

These last words are not the words of a tyrant, but of a monster.

Here commences that grand spectacle, so moral and so dramatick; that combat between vice and virtue, under the names of Narcissus and of Burrhus, contending for the soul of Nero; and here are developed these two characters, as perfectly traced as those of Nero and of Agrippina. Burrhus is the model of the conduct, which may be held by a virtuous man, placed by the circumstances of the times near a bad prince, and in a depraved court. He is surrounded by passions, interests, and vices, and contends with them all, on all sides. He pronounces not a word concerning virtue, no more than Nero concerning crimes; but he represents the former in all its purity, as Nero represents the latter in all their horrours. He resists the restless ambition of Agrippina, and the perversity of his master, and speaks the truth to both, but without ostentation, without bravado, with a noble and modest firmness, not seeking to offend, and not fearing to displease. He speaks to the one as his emperour, and to the other as the mother of Cæsar. He fulfils all his duties, and observes every decorum. But when his guilty pupil dares to discover his horrible project, this man, heretofore so serene, becomes all on fire: his tranquillity made him great, his indignation renders him sublime. Eloquence in his mouth is like the virtue in his soul, without affectation, without effort, but full of that ardour which penetrates, that truth which overthrows, and that vehemence which hurries away. He affects even Nero, and comes out from his presence full of hope and of joy, to go and consummate with Britannicus a reconciliation, which he thinks sure. At this moment enters Narcissus: to the pathos, to the enthusiasm of a candid soul, succeeds all the art of turpitude and wickedness; and in these two paintings, contrasted with each other, the author is equally admirable. But to place them thus, in opposition to each other, he must have been well assured of his talents. The greater and more infallible the effect of the former, the more dangerous was the latter.—The experience of the theatre teaches us how much danger there is in the introduction of sentiments, which the spectator hates and repels, in too quick a succession to those, which are delicious and dear to him, and to which he loves to resign himself. This observation does not reply to the daring villains who have a certain energy, and elevation, but to personages vile and contemptible, and Narcissus is of this number. These sorts of characters, sometimes necessary in tragedies, are very difficult to manage. The spectator is willing to hate, but he dislikes that contempt should be added to hatred, because contempt has nothing in it tragical. Voltaire, in blaming in this point of view the parts of Felix, of Prusias, and of Maximus, in Corneille, quotes that of Narcissus, as a model to be followed, when we have occasion for personages of this character. He admires the scene of Narcissus with Nero; but remarking the little effect which it always produces, he thinks it would produce a greater, if Narcissus had more interest in advising to the crime. I know not whether this reflection is very just. No doubt, if Narcissus, to pursue his course and his object, had to overcome some of the sentiments of nature, like Felix, who determined to put to death his son-in-law for fear of losing his government, the proportion of the means would fail. But Narcissus, who endeavours to govern Nero as he had governed Claudius, by flattering his passions, has no interest in saving Britannicus. According to his established character, all means must be good in his estimation; he does but follow his natural disposition, which is base and perverse; and if the scene between him and Nero, notwithstanding the perfection of it, is not nearly so much applauded as that of Burrhus, it is because it can, in no case, on no supposition, give the same pleasure; and I see the reason in the human heart. The soul has been expanding itself on hearing Burrhus; it contracts and fades on seeing Narcissus. The part he acts is one of those, which can only be endured, but can never please. Let us not reproach mankind, when assembled, with a sentiment which does them honour, their invincible repugnance to every thing that is vile. These characters in the drama may be employed as means, but never for the effect. The greatest effort of the artist is to procure them to be tolerated on the stage, and admired by the connoisseur, who judges only of the execution; and he cannot accomplish this but by giving them, in the highest degree, qualities, that may be possessed by the base and wicked, artifice and address. This has been done by Racine in the part of Narcissus. What an enterprize to bring back Nero, after the impression he had received, and which the spectator had so ardently shared! What an interval there is between the moment, in which he sends Burrhus to his brother to consummate a reconciliation, and that, in which he goes out with Narcissus to poison his rival! And nevertheless, such is the detestable art of Narcissus, or rather such is the admirable art of the poet, that this revolution, the work of a few minutes, appears probable, natural, and even necessary. The venom of malignity is so ably prepared, that it must penetrate the soul of the tyrant, and infect it without remedy. This astonishing scene deserves to be analyzed.

Every thing is prepared for so just an execution;
The poison is all ready; the famous Locusta
Has redoubled, for me, her officious cares;
She has caused a slave to expire in my sight;
And the sword is no less prompt to cut off a life,
Than this new poison, which her hand has entrusted to me.

Seigneur, tout est pré ou pour une mort si juste,
Le poison est tout prêt: la fameuse Locuste
A redoublé pour moi ses soins officieux;
Elle a fait expirer un esclave aux mes yeux;
Et le fer est moins prompt pour trancher une vie,
Que le nouveau poison, que sa main me confie.

Nero.—Narcissus, it is enough, I acknowledge your care;
But would not wish you to go farther.

Narcisse, c'est assez, je reconnais ce soin;
Et ne souhaite pas que vous alliez plus loin.

Narcissus.—What! is your hatred to Britannicus so cooled,
As to forbid me!—

Quoi! pour Britannicus votri haine affaiblie
Me defend!—

Nero.—Yes, Narcissus, they have reconciled us.

Oui, Narcisse, on nous réconcilie.

Narcissus.—I shall be very careful not to dissuade you,
My lord; but he has seen himself sometimes imprisoned.
This offence, in his heart, will long remain fresh.
There are no secrets, which time does not reveal.
He will be informed, that my hand was to have presented him
A poison, which your orders had caus'd to be prepared.
Can the Gods turn his thoughts from this design?
But perhaps he will not hesitate to do, what you dare not attempt.

Je me garderai bien de vous en detourner,
Seigneur; mais il s'est vu tantôt emprisoner.
Cette offense en son cœur sera long temps nouvelle.
Il n'est point de secrets que le temps ne revele,
Il saura que ma main lui devait presenter
Un poison que votre ordre avoit fait apprêter.
Les dieux de ce dessein puissent-ils le distraire!
Mais peut-être il fera ce que vous n'osez faire.

Nero.—They answer for his heart, and I will conquer mine.

On rèpond de son cœur, et je vaincrai le mien.

He has already attacked Nero by his fears: but fear has not succeeded. He turns round in a moment and attacks him by his jealousy.

Is the marriage of Junia to be the bond of this connexion ?
My lord ! are you, moreover, to make this sacrifice to him ?

Et l'hymen de Junie en est il le lien ?
Seigneur ! lui faites vous encore ce sacrifice ?

Nero.—You take too much care upon you : however this may be,
Narcissus, I consider him no longer among my enemies.

C'est prendre trop de soin : quoi qu'il en soit, Narcisse,
Je ne le compte plus parmi mes ennemies.

This is a critical moment for Narcissus. Two attacks have already been repulsed. He loses no time ; he endeavours now to irritate Nero by the jealousy of power.

Agrippina, my lord, had flattered herself with the hope of this.
She has reassumed her sovereign empire over you.

Agrippine, seigneur, se l'etait bien promis.
Elle a repris sur vous son souverain empire.

Nero.—What now ? what has she said ? and what is it you would say ?

Quoi donc? qu'a-t-elle dit ? et que voulez dire ?

Narcissus.—She has boasted of it, publickly enough.

Elle s'en est vantée assez publiquement.

Nero.—Of what ?

De quoi ?

Narcissus.—That it was only necessary for her to see you one moment ;
That, to all the great noise and fatal resentment,
A modest silence would be soon seen to succeed ;
That you yourself would be the first to subscribe to a reconciliation,
Very happy that her goodness would condescend to forget all.

Qu'elle n'avait qu'a vous voir un moment ;
Qu'a tout ce grand éclat, à ce courroux funeste,
On verrait succeder un silence modeste ;
Que vous même à la paix souscririez le premier,
Heureux, que sa bonté daignât tout oublier.

Nero.—But, Narcissus, tell me what you would have me do ?

Mais, Narcisse, dis-moi, que veux tu que je fasse ?

Let us remark, in this place, the truth of the dialogue and the simplicity of the diction : it is not above the common style of continual conversation, and it ought not, indeed, to go beyond that. On one side it is a cool and deliberate villain, who thinks not of adorning his language : villains are rarely in a passion. On the other hand, a man, internally agitated, who answers only by a few painful words. Every poetick figure ought to disappear. Our criticks of the day, who affect to acknowledge no other poetry than the passionate and figurative, would not fail, if Racine was living, to find him very cold and feeble. What verses, they would say, are these ?

Agrippine, seigneur, se l'etait bien promis.
Elle s'en est vantée assez publiquement.
Mais, Narcisse, dis moi, que veux tu que je fasse ?

Would any one express himself otherwise in prose ?

It is precisely for this reason that they are excellent ; because they are what they ought to be. The last, simple as it is, makes us shudder. The tyger is about to awake.

I have but too much disposition to punish her arrogance ;
And if I should give way to it, her indiscreet triumph
Would be soon followed by an eternal regret.
But what will be the language of the whole universe ?
Would you draw me into the broad road of tyrants ?
And that Rome, obliterating so many titles to honour,
Leave me no better name, than that of a poisoner ?
They will place my vengeance in the rank of parricides.

Je n'ai que trop de pente á punir son audace ;
Et, si je m'en croyais, ce triomphe indiscret.
Serait bientôt suivi d'un eternel regret.
Mais, de tout l'univers quel sera le langage?
Sur les pas des tyrans veux tu que je m'engage ?
Et que Rome, effacant tant de titres d'honneur
Me laisse pour tous noms, celui d'empoisonneur ?
Ils mettront ma vengeance au rang des parricides.

[To be continued.]

For the Monthly Anthology.

SILVA.

No. 19.

Cupidus Sylvarum.—*Juvenal.*

CUMBERLAND.

THE memoirs of Cumberland are an entertaining work. He is particularly happy in the description of Irish manners, of which the following narrative is singularly illustrative.

'A short time after this (says he) Lord Eyre, who had a great passion for cock-fighting, and whose cocks were the crack of all Ireland, engaged me in a maine at Eyre Court. I was a perfect novice in that elegant sport ; but the gentlemen from all parts sent me in their contributions, and having a good feeder, I won every battle in the maine but one. At this meeting I fell in with my hero from Shannon bank. Both parties dined together, but when I found that mine, which was the more numerous, infinitely the most obstreperous, and disposed to quarrel, could no longer be left in peace with our antagonists, I quitted my seat by Lord Eyre, and went to the gentleman above alluded to, who was presiding at the second table, and seating myself familiarly on the arm of his chair, proposed to him to adjourn our party, and assemble them in another house, for the sake of harmony and good fellowship. With the best grace in life he instantly assented, and when I added that I should put them under his care, and expect from him as a man of honour and my friend, that every mother's son of them should be found forth coming and alive the next morning. 'Then, by the soul of me, he replied, and they shall ; provided only that no man in company shall dare to give *the glorious and immortal memory* for his toast, which no gentleman, who feels as I do, can put up with.' To this I pledged myself, and we removed to a whiskey house, attended by half a score of pipers, playing different tunes. Here we went on very joyously and lovingly for a time, till a well-dressed gentleman entered the room, and civilly accosting me, requested to partake of our festivity, and join the company, if nobody had an objection. 'Ah, now, don't be too sure of that,' a voice was instantly heard to reply, 'I believe you will find plenty of objection in this company to your being one amongst us.' What had he done, the gentleman demanded. 'What have you done ?' rejoined the first speaker. 'Don't I know you for the miscreant, that ravished the poor wench against her will in the presence of her mother ? And did'nt your pagans, that held her down, ravish the mother afterwards, in the presence of her daughter ? And do you think we will admit you into our company ? Make yourself sure that we shall not ; therefore get out of *this* as speedily as you can, and away wid you.' Upon this the whole company rose, and in their rising the civil gentleman made his exit, and was off. I relate this incident exactly as it happened, suppressing the name of the gentleman, who was a man of property and some consequence. When my surprize had subsided, and the punch began to circulate, with a rapidity the greater for this gentleman's having troubled the waters, I took my departure, having first cautioned a friend, who sate by me, (and the only protestant in the company) to keep his head cool, and beware of the *glorious memory*. This gallant young officer, son to a man, who held lands of my father, promised faithfully to be sober and discreet, as well knowing the company he was in. But my friend, having forgot the first part of his promise, and getting very tipsy, let the second part slip out of his memory, and became very mad; for stepping aside for his pistols, he re-entered the room, and laying them on the table, took the cockade from his hat, and dashed it into the punch-bowl, demanding of the company to drink *the glorious and immortal memory of king William* in a bumper, or abide the consequences. I was not there, and if I had been present I could neither have staid the tumult, nor described it. I only know he turned out the next morning merely for honour's sake, but as it was one against a host, the magnanimity of his opponents let him off with a shot or two, which did no execution.'

—

CICERO.

I know not what Cicero would have said of the dabblers in chymistry, and the frivolous experimentalists of the present day, who, from a superficial knowledge of this nature, think themselves great philosophers. It is very proper that these subjects should be profoundly understood, and that profest adepts should be amply rewarded for their ingenious and useful labours. But pursuits of this kind ought not to be made a branch of general education to the exclusion of more useful acquisitions. A gentleman may make a very handsome figure in life by the aid of literature alone; but without literature he can be agreeable neither as a companion nor a writer, tho' he should possess the chymical skill of Lavoisier, or the astronomical knowledge of Herschel. "As to physicks, or natural philosophy, (says Middleton) Cicero seems to have had the notion with Socrates, that a minute and particular attention to it, and the making it the sole end and object of our inquiries, was a study rather curious than profitable, and contributing but little to the improvement of human life. For though he was perfectly acquainted with the various systems of all the philosophers of any name, from the earliest antiquity, and has explained them all in his works, yet he did not think it worth while, either to form any distinct opinions of his own, or at least to declare them. From his account, however, of those systems, we may observe, that several of the fundamental principles of the modern philosophers, which pass for the discoveries of these later times, are the revival rather of ancient notions, maintained by some of the first philosophy of whom we have any notice in history; as, the motion of the earth, the antipodes, a vacuum, and an universal gravitation, or attractive quality of matter, which holds the world in its present form and order."

—

POPE.

Johnson observes that Pope preferred for their harmony these two lines :

Lo! where Mæotis sleeps, and hardly flows
The freezing Tanais through a waste of snows.

I have somewhere read that he gave a decided preference for the same reason to the following inscription on a grotto, which he translated from a modern Latin poet.

Nymph of the grot! this sacred scene I keep,
And to the murmur of those waters sleep.
O, spare my slumbers, gently tread the cave,
And drink in silence, or in silence lave.

His attack on Colly Cibber was petulant and unjust. Cibber, far from being the dunce which Pope describes him, was a man of vigorous sense and lively wit, as may be proved by his observations on Cicero, and by many of his plays.

Questions have been asked, and doubts have been entertained, whether Pope was a poet in the dignified meaning of the word. Let the answer be given, and let the doubt be destroyed, by the authority of reason and the impartiality of enlightened criticism. "After all this, it is surely superfluous to answer the question that has once been asked, Whether Pope was a poet; otherwise than by asking in return, if Pope be not a poet, where is poetry to be found? To circumscribe poetry by a definition will only shew the narrowness of the definer, though a definition which shall exclude Pope will not easily be made. Let us look round upon the present time, and back upon the past; let us inquire to whom the voice of mankind has decreed the wreath of poetry; let their productions be examined, and their claims stated, and the pretensions of Pope will be no more disputed. Had he given the world only his version, the name of poet must have been allowed him : if the writer of the "Iliad" were to class his successors, he would assign a very high place to his translator, without requiring any other evidence of genius." —

ARAM.

Eugene Aram was a very extraordinary man. Without the aid of a master he gained a perfect knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, and read all their authors. He acquired the Chaldee, Arabick, Hebrew, and Celtick, was an excellent botanist, and a profound mathematician. But the excellence of his head could not counteract the depravity of his heart, and he was induced to murder Daniel Clark, a shoe-maker, to possess himself of a trifling sum of money. The murder was concealed nearly fourteen years, and was accidentally discovered by some bones which were dug up. Aram was tried, convicted, and executed, on the testimony of his own wife, and on that of one Houseman, who had been concerned in the murder, but on this occasion turned king's evidence. The following defence, which this extraordinary man read in court, is perhaps one of the finest pieces of eloquence in our language, and will amply compensate for its length by its uncommon excellence.

'My Lord—I know not whether it is of right, or through some indulgence of your lordship, that I am allowed the liberty at this bar, and at this time, to attempt a defence; incapable, and uninstructed, as I am to speak. Since, while I see so many eyes upon me, so numerous and awful a concourse, fixed with attention, and filled with I know not what expectancy, I labour not with guilt, my lord, but with perplexity. For having never seen a court but this, being wholly unacquainted with law, the customs of the bar, and all judiciary proceedings, I fear I shall be so little capable of speaking with propriety in this place, that it exceeds my hope if I shall be able to speak at all.

'I have heard, my lord, the indictment read, wherein I find myself charged with the highest crime; with an enormity I am altogether incapable of; a fact, to the commission of which there goes far more insensibility of heart, more profligacy of morals, than ever fell to my lot. And nothing possibly could have admitted a presumption of this nature but a depravity, not inferiour to that imputed to me. However, as I stand indicted at your lordship's bar, and have heard what is called evidence induced in support of such a charge, I very humbly solicit your lordship's patience, and beg the hearing of this respectable audience, while I, single and unskilful, destitute of friends, and unassisted by counsel, say something, perhaps, like argument, in my defence. I shall consume but little of your lordship's time; what I have to say will be short, and this brevity, probably, will be the best part of it: however, it is offered with all possible regard, and the greatest submission to your lordship's consideration, and that of this honourable court.

'First, my lord, the whole tenor of my conduct in life contradicts every particular of this indictment. Yet I had never said this, did not my present circumstances extort it from me, and seem to make it necessary. Permit me here, my lord, to call upon malignity itself, so long and cruelly busied in this prosecution, to charge upon me any immorality, of which prejudice was not the author. No, my lord, I concerted no schemes of fraud, projected no violence, injured no man's person or property. My days were honestly laborious, my nights intensely studious. And, I humbly conceive, my notice of this, especially at this time, will not be thought impertinent, or unseasonable; but, at least, deserving some attention: because, my lord, that any person, after a temperate use of life, a series of thinking and acting regularly, and without one single deviation from sobriety, should plunge into the very depth of profligacy, precipitately and at once, is altogether improbable and unprecedented, and absolutely inconsistent with the course of things. Mankind is never corrupted at once; villainy is always progressive, and declines from right, step after step, till every regard of probity is lost, and every sense of all moral obligations totally perishes.

"Again, my lord, a suspicion of this kind, which nothing but malevolence could entertain, and ignorance propagate, is violently opposed by my very situation at that time, with respect to health: for, but a little space before, I had been confined to my bed, and suffered under a very long and severe disorder, and was not able, for half a year together, so much as to walk. The distemper left me indeed, yet slowly and in part; but so macerated, so enfeebled, that I was reduced to cructhes; and was so far from being well about the time I am charged with this fact, that I never to this day perfectly recovered. Could then a person in this condition take any thing into his head so unlikely, so extravagant; I, past the vigour of my age, feeble and valetudinary, with no inducement to engage, no ability to accomplish, no weapon wherewith to perpetrate such a fact; without interest, without power, without motive, without means?

'Besides, it must needs occur to every one, that an action of this atrocious nature is never heard of, but, when its springs are laid open, it appears that it was to support some indolence, or supply some luxury, to satisfy some avarice, or oblige some malice; to prevent some real, or some imaginary want: yet I lay not under the influence of any one of these. Surely, my lord, I may, consistent with both truth and modesty, affirm thus much; and none who have any veracity, and knew me, will ever question this.

'In the second place, the disappearance of Clark is suggested as an argument of his being dead: but the uncertainty of such an inference from that, and the fallibility of all conclusions of such a sort, from such a circumstance, are too obvious, and too notorious, to require instances: yet, superseding many, permit me to produce a very recent one, and that afforded by this castle.

'In June, 1757, William Thompson, for all the vigilance of this place, in open day-light, and double-ironed, made his escape; and, notwithstanding an immediate inquiry set on foot, the strictest search, and all advertisement, was never seen or heard of since. If then Thompson got off unseen, through all these difficulties, how very easy was it for Clark, when none of them opposed him? But what would be thought of a prosecution commenced against any one seen last with Thompson?

'Permit me next, my lord, to observe a little upon the bones which have been discovered. It is said, which perhaps is saying very far, that these are the skeleton of a man. It is possible indeed it may: but is there any certain known criterion, which incontestably distinguishes the sex in human bones? Let it be considered, my lord, whether the ascertaining of this point ought not to precede any attempt to identify them.

'The place of their depositum too claims much more attention than is commonly bestowed upon it: for, of all places in the world, none could have mentioned any one, wherein there was greater certainty of finding human bones, than a hermitage; except he should point out a church-yard: hermitages, in time past, being not only places of religious retirement, but of burial too. And it has scarce or never been heard of, but that every cell, now known, contains, or contained, these relicks of humanity; some mutilated, and some entire. I do not inform, but give me leave to remind your lordship, that here sat solitary sanctity, and here the hermit, or the anchoress, hoped that repose for their bones, when dead, they here enjoyed when living.

'All this while, my lord, I am sensible this is known to your lordship, and many in this court, better than I. But it seems necessary to my case, that others, who have not at all, perhaps, adverted to things of this nature, and may have concern in my trial, should be made acquainted with it. Suffer me then, my lord, to produce a few of many evidences, that these cells were used as repositories of the dead, and to enumerate a few, in which human bones have been found, as it happened in this in question; lest, to some, that accident might seem extraordinary, and, consequently, occasion prejudice.

'1. The bones, as was supposed, of the Saxon, St. Dubritius, were discovered buried in his cell at Guy's cliff, near Warwick, as appears from the authority of Sir William Dugdale.

‘ 2. The bones, thought to be those of the anchoress Rosia, were but lately discovered in a cell at Royston, entire, fair, and undecayed, though they must have lain interred for several centuries, as is proved by Dr. Stukely.

‘ 3. But our own country, nay, almost this neighbourhood, supplies another instance: for, in January, 1747, was found by Mr. Stovin, accompanied by a reverend gentleman, the bones, in part, of some recluse, in the cell at Lindholm, near Hatfield. They were believed to be those of William of Lindholm, a hermit, who had long made this cave his habitation.

‘ 4. In February, 1744, part of Woburn abbey being pulled down, a large portion of a corpse appeared, even with the flesh on, and which bore cutting with a knife; though it is certain this had lain above 200 years, and how much longer is doubtful; for this abbey was founded in 1145, and dissolved in 1538 or 9.

‘ What would have been said, what believed, if this had been an accident to the bones in question?

‘ Further, my lord, it is not yet out of living memory, that a little distance from Knaresborough, in a field, part of the manor of the worthy and patriot Baronet, who does that borough the honour to represent it in parliament, were found, in digging for gravel, not one human skeleton only, but five or six, deposited side by side, with each an urn placed at its head, as your lordship knows was usual in ancient interments.

‘ About the same time, and in another field, almost close to this borough, was discovered also, in searching for gravel, another human skeleton; but the piety of the same worthy gentleman ordered both the pits to be filled up again, commendably unwilling to disturb the dead.

‘ Is the invention of these bones forgotten, then, or industriously concealed, that the discovery of those in question may appear the more singular and extraordinary? Whereas, in fact, there is nothing extraordinary in it. My Lord, almost every place conceals such remains. In fields, in hills, in highway sides, in commons, lie frequent and unsuspected bones. And our present allotments for rest for the departed, is but of some centuries.

‘ Another particular seems not to claim a little of your lordship's notice, and that of the gentlemen of the jury; which is, that perhaps no example occurs of more than *one* skeleton being found in *one cell*; and in the cell in question was found but *one*; agreeable, in this, to the peculiarity of every other known cell in Britain. Not the invention of one skeleton, then, but of two, would have appeared suspicious and uncommon.

‘ But then, my lord, to attempt to identify these, when even to identify living men sometimes has proved so difficult, as in the case of Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Symnel at home, and of Don Sebastian abroad, will be looked upon perhaps as an attempt to determine what is indeterminable. And I hope too it will not pass unconsidered here, where gentlemen believe with caution, think with reason, and decide with humanity, what interest the endeavours to do this is calculated to serve in assigning proper personality to those bones, whose particular appropriation can only appear to eternal Omniscience.

‘ Permit me, my lord, also

very humbly to remonstrate, that, as human bones appear to have been the inseparable adjuncts of every cell, even any person's naming such a place at random as containing them, in this case, shews him rather unfortunate than conscious prescient, and that these attendants on every hermitage only accidentally concurred with this conjecture. A mere casual coincidence of *words* and *things*.

'But it seems another skeleton has been discovered by some labourer, which was full as confidently averred to be Clark's as this. My Lord, must some of the living, if it promotes some interest, be made answerable for all the bones that earth has concealed, and chance exposed? And might not a place where bones lay be mentioned by a person by chance, as well as found by a labourer by chance? Or, is it more criminal accidentally to *name* where bones lie, than accidentally to *find* where they lie?

'Here too is a human skull produced, which is fractured; but was this the *cause*, or was it the consequence of death; was it owing to violence, or was it the effect of natural decay? If it was violence, was that violence before or after death? My lord, in May 1732, the remains of William Lord Archbishop of this province were taken up, by permission, in this cathedral, and the bones of the skull were found broken; yet certainly he died by no violence offered to him alive, that could occasion that fracture there.

'Let it be considered, my lord, that upon the dissolution of religious houses, and the commencement of the Reformation, the ravages of these times both affected the living and the dead. In search after imaginary treasures, coffins were broken up, graves and vaults dug open, monuments ransack'd, and shrines demolished; your Lordship knows that these violations proceeded so far, as to occasion parliamentary authority to restrain them; and it did, about the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. I entreat your Lordship suffer not the violences, the depredations, and the iniquities of those times to be imputed to this.

'Moreover, what gentleman here is ignorant that Knaresborough had a castle; which, though now a ruin, was once considerable both for its strength and garrison. All know it was vigorously besieged by the arms of the parliament; at which siege, in sallies, conflicts, flights, pursuits, many fell in all the places round it: and where they fell were buried; for every place, my lord, is burial earth in war; and many, questionless, of these rest yet unknown, whose bones futurity shall discover.

'I hope, with all imaginable submission, that what has been said will not be thought impertinent to this indictment; and that it will be far from the wisdom, the learning, and the integrity of this place, to impute to the living what zeal in its fury may have done; what nature may have taken off, and piety interred; or what war alone may have destroyed, alone deposited.

'As to the circumstances that have been raked together, I have nothing to observe; but that all circumstances whatsoever are precarious, and have been but too frequently found lamentably fallible; even the strongest have failed. They may rise to the utmost degree of probability; yet are they but probability still. Why need I name to your lordship the two Harrisons recorded in Dr. Howel, who both suffered on circumstances, because of the sudden disappearance of their lodger, who was in credit, had contracted debts, borrowed money and went off unseen, and returned again a great many years after their execution? Why name the intricate affair of Jacques du Moulin, under King Charles II. related by a gentleman who was council for the crown? and why the unhappy Coleman, who suffered innocent, though convicted upon positive evidence, and whose children perished for want, because the world uncharitably believed the father guilty. Why mention the perjury of Smith, incautiously admitted King's evidence; who, to screen himself, equally accused Faircloth and Loveday of the murder of Dunn; the first of whom, in 1749, was executed at Wincester; and Loveday was about to suffer at Reading, had not Smith been proved perjured, to the satisfaction of the court, by the surgeon of the Gosport hospital.

'Now, my lord, having endeavoured to shew that the whole of this process is altogether repugnant to every part of my life; that it is inconsistent with my condition of health about that time; that no rational inference can be drawn, that a person is dead who suddenly disappears; that hermitages were the constant repositories of the bones of the recluse; that the proofs of this are well authenticated; that the revolutions in religion, or the fortune of war, has mangled, or buried, the dead; the conclusion remains, perhaps, no less reasonably than impatiently wished for. I, last, after a year's confinement, equal to either fortune, put myself upon the candour, the justice and the humanity of your lordship, and upon yours, my countrymen, gentlemen of the jury.'

The Judge declared that the reasoning of Aram was the strongest he had ever met with, but that it could not avail against direct and positive evidence. He was tried on the 3d of August, 1759.

* * *

For the Anthology.

THE REMARKER. *No.* 13.

Omnibus, qui patriam conservarint, adjuverint, auxerint, certum esse in cælo definitum locum, ubi beati ævo sempiterno fruantur. Nihil est enim illi principi Deo, qui omnem hunc mundum regit, quod quidem in terris fiat, acceptius, quam concilia cætusque hominum, jure sociati.—CIC. SOMNIUM SCIPIONIS.

I SHALL not be suspected of having borrowed the lesson from antiquity, when I say, that to live according to the law of his being is the glory of every rational mind. Indeed, we are taught this lesson by our own experience, as well as by volumes of philosophy. If we look around us, and survey the sublime objects of nature, we shall find that they all obey that primitive rule, which was imparted to them by their divine author. "If," in the language of a writer on Ecclesiastical Polity, "nature should intermit her course; if the frame of that heavenly arch, erected over our heads, should loosen and dissolve itself; if celestial spheres should forget their wonted motions, and by irregular volubility turn themselves any way as it might happen; if the prince of the lights of heaven, which now as a giant doth run his unwearied course, should as it were by a languishing faintness, begin to stand and to rest himself; if the moon should wander from her beaten course, the times and seasons of the year blend themselves by disordered and confused mixture, the winds breathe out their last gasp, the clouds yield no rain, the earth be defeated of heavenly influence, the fruits of the earth pine away, as children at the withered breasts of their mother, no longer able to yield them relief; what would become of man himself, whom these things do now all serve?" Where would empires and communities exist, and where would man find rest to his weary feet, if he should forget, and they should cease to obey, those laws, which regulate the conduct of beings superiour and subordinate? The principles of these laws flow from the fountains of nature and philosophy; and the study of them expands the powers of the intellect, while it gives life and activity to the virtues of the heart.

Ancient lawgivers enlisted poetry and musick in the civilization of society, and in extending the influence of the laws. In the early stages of Grecian history the judicial codes were expressed in verse and adapted to musick. Let us not however suppose, that the science of jurisprudence lost any of its dignity by the use of verse and song, since there was a time, according to Plutarch, "when even history, philosophy, every action and passion, which required grave or serious discussion, was written in poetry and adapted to musick. The praises of their gods, their prayers and thanksgivings after victory, were all composed in verse, some through the love of harmony, and some through custom." The laws of Charondas were sung at the banquets of the Athenians; and the youth of Crete committed their laws to memory "with accompaniments of musical melody, in order that, by the enchantment of harmony, the sentiments might be more forcibly impressed on their minds." I do not wonder then, that Plato in his republick should commend musick, and that in his enthusiasm he should declare, "that education, so far as it respected the mind, consisted in harmony."

It was an elegant and just remark of the Roman orator, that the sciences are associated together and delight in each other's company. Their harmonious intercourse resembles the dance of the Muses round the altar of Jupiter. The law claims kindred with the noblest of the sciences, and even aspires to an alliance with our divine religion. Both flow from the same source, and both promote the felicity of those beings, on which they jointly operate. They unite to impose restraint on the injustice of men, but in different modes: the one by the silent but powerful operations of conscience; the other by the machinery of the civil power. The laws of human society would confessedly be imperfect without the aid of religion, whose voice, though uttered in whispers, is heard in the morning and in the evening, by day and by night, in the retirement of domestick life, and in the intercourse of civil society.

This favourite science must, like every other, sit at the feet of religion, and own its obligations to her sacred instruction. To the votaries of christianity are we indebted for the preservation of what little science gleamed through the long night, in which the moral world was for centuries enveloped. To them are we indebted for the discovery and preservation of the Institutes of Justinian, and the works of the civil law, a more illustrious monument to the glory of that emperour, than titles of victory. To christianity are we indebted for political knowledge and for settling upon a proper foundation the civil and religious rights of subjects and rulers. While we recognize our common obligations to that system, which breathes "peace on earth," and confess, that the science of jurisprudence owes to it all its perfection; we devoutly hope, that the child may never lift up its hand against its parent, lest it should wither, nor dishonour its divine original.

Were I to be asked the qualifications of a professor of the law, I should say, that, like the orator whom Cicero describes, he should know the nature and powers of language, and the great variety of things. To elegance, wit, learning, rapidity of thought, and urbanity of manners, he should add an intimate acquaintance with the heart, the source of human conduct. No man can converse well on things, of which he is ignorant. The empty flourish of words will soon betray the puerility of the sentiment, and the feebleness of the images in the speaker's mind. And therefore Sir Edward Coke, whose authority may always be quoted without a charge of pedantry, recommended to the students the study of all arts and sciences. "I cannot exclude," he says, "the knowledge" of the arts and sciences from the professor of jurisprudence. "Since the knowledge of them is necessary and profitable." In this science, ignorance contracts the liberality of the mind, and is as closely connected with litigiousness and the low and despicable arts of the pettifogger, as in religion it is united with fanaticism and spiritual pride. Whoever glows with a pure love to his country, whoever has a soul, which can discern and estimate the beauty of order in the conduct of affairs, of harmony among states and individuals, of right, of security, and truth, will duly respect the system of jurisprudence, which is the bond of society, and from which all its happiness proceeds. Finally the professor of the law, while he drinks deeply of the fountains of his science, ought to purify and exalt his taste by the diligent study of the models of ancient genius in eloquence, poetry, and morals. Those writings though now grown venerable by time, still retain the purple light of beauty and genius. They demonstrate the sublime heights, to which the intellect may aspire, and they exhibit the superiority of its glory to that of arts and arms.

In any community, that the courts of law may be fountains of justice, from which may issue the healthful streams of equity, not only should the judges be men of learning and virtue, *having no fear but the fear of God*, but the legislator should be adorned with illustrious qualifications. His intelligence must discover and apply those principles of right and wrong, which are applicable to the variety of things, on which laws must operate. He ought to know the history of nations and of his own country, the forms of their government, and the tendency of different political systems to promote human happiness. He should be endowed with a generous nature, enriched with the treasures of learning, adding to a clear intellect and passions subdued, not only innocence of life and freedom from suspicion, but the positive virtues and excellencies of the heart. In fine, if he is a man of honour, experience, integrity, disinterested, freely chosen, and free from the chains of party spirit, he is formed for the Lawgiver, not of a single community only, but of nations.

Since to know the laws, by which we are governed, and to yield to them a free obedience, is an essential part of the science and duty of life; I have thought, that their study ought to be in introduced into our University, and and make part of its liberal institutions. Two of the learned professions receive there all the advantages which can be derived from books, and from Professors, who add to the knowledge of ancient learning the embellishments of modern grace, and elegance. The benefactors, whose names are mentioned with due encomiums on its annual solemnity, have laid rich foundations for the study of the other sciences. Private munificence has recently established an institution for the culture of Botany. Eloquence likewise, under the auspices of the American Quintilian, the ornament both of the senate and the chair, and able to exhibit a model as well as to give the precepts of his art, has just joined the fraternity. But when, I ask, are wit, learning, richness of language, harmony of utterance and all the treasures of eloquence, most honourably employed? Surely when defining the boundaries of right and wrong, when defending innocence, when pursuing guilt, when, in fine, they are subservient to that science, "which employs in its theory the noblest faculties of the soul, and exerts in its practice the cardinal virtues of the heart." A new object presents itself for the munificence of our fellow citizens. Can they render a more valuable service to their country, than by contributing to the excellence of its laws, and to the purity of their administration? Soon then may there be enrolled among the publick benefactors of that University some generous patron of Jurisprudence, whose name shall be encircled with wreaths of perpetual honour, and from whom there may constantly flow rays of a divine quality for the ornament of the state and for the happiness of the citizens.

From Aikin's Annual Review, vol. 4th, page 563.

WE maintain that the poets, who have flourished during the reign of George III., have produced as great a quantity of lasting poetry, as those who flourished during the reign of Elizabeth, or any other half-century of the British annals. The tragedies of that age live; so will the comedies of ours. Our chorus-dramas, and our ballads, are decidedly superiour to those of our ancestors: so are our elegies, and songs, and odes. One good translation, Fairfax's Tasso, has been bequeathed to us from the times of Elizabeth: we have Sotheby's Oberon, and several other masterpieces, whose collective weight makes a counterpoise.

And why should a rude age be favourable to the production of good poetry? Rudeness implies a publick of bad criticks; an ignorance of history, of antiquities, of the limits of nature, likely to tolerate the absurdest violations of truth, costume, geography, and probability. Accordingly, the poets of rude ages, who are no more nor less likely than others to have genius, commonly offend by want of taste: and this frequently in so great a degree, as to condemn their works to be refashioned; in which case, the modernizer runs away with the praise. Homer indeed originated early, but was probably corrected by a good critick, in an age of taste. Tasso, who has produced the next best poem to Homer, flourished in the autumn, not the spring, of Italian culture: Virgil bloomed in an age of refinement, and Claudian was still a poet. The funeral song of Hacon is a fine ode: but so is the bard of Gray. The tragedies of Schiller, the fabliaux of Wieland, were composed at the very close of the eighteenth century; just before the French revolution had blunted the acme of human refinement. The proportion of good specimens of poetry produced in rude times is very small.

POETRY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

EXPERIENCE; OR, "FOLLY AS IT FLIES."

A POEM, DELIVERED BEFORE THE Φ Β Κ SOCIETY, AT CAMBRIDGE, AUG. 28, 1806. BY BENJAMIN WHITWELL.

> ....*purus*
> *Non eget*......................
> ....*venenatis gravida sagittis*
> ....*pharetrâ.* HOR.

ARGUMENT.

PROVIDENCE having directed that man should be ignorant of future events, he is stimulated to proceed through life by the hope of enjoyment still to be attained. It is the moral of the poem to represent, if the same motives and passions actuate us which have governed others, that by observation of the course, which they have followed, we may learn where our own will terminate; that similar conduct will produce similar consequences; that neglect and oblivion will be the fate of the indolent and profligate; fame the reward of industry and enterprise.

These remarks are intended to be illustrated by an allegory. Life is represented as the journey of a day; the traveller, man, having passed the stage of infancy, and arrived near the close of youth, just verging on manhood, we find him encircled by Health, Love, and Beauty, eager to distribute their blessings. Discontented with his situation, he rejects them all. Care persuades him that he is a slave to the restraint of parental authority, and Hope whispers that Time will bring release. Time arrives, leaves Experience; the traveller, still advancing, requests Experience to direct his course, who answers, It is only my duty to advise, by the decree of fate; I must follow where you shall lead, and instruct you in your course, whether you shall yield to the persuasions of pleasure, or obey the dictates of wisdom. Observe this mirrour, oppose it to the *past*, and the reflection exhibits the future. They differ more in name than in reality, being alike to the eye of Omniscience.

The traveller inspects the mirrour, and discovers a concourse of people spread over a flowery plain and a rugged mountain; the beauty of the plain exclusively engrosses his attention, and, at his request, Experience explains the different objects which it presents. It is inhabited by the proud and indolent, who usurp the honours and rewards due to virtue and industry. Among these are the votaries of wealth and of fashion. After describing the court of Fashion, still proceeding in their journey, they successively view various parts of the plain. The pretenders to science, the literary fop, the itinerant, the lawyer, and the apostate politician described. This last character contrasted with that of the upright statesman, terminating with a respectful tribute to the late President Adams.

When Experience ceases, the traveller again examines the objects which were first presented; he discovers a path leading through the plain to the mountain, on which the temple of Fame is erected. He is eager to ascend the summit. Experience replies, You must now be undeceived; having spent the day with Fashion and Folly, your strength is exhausted, and Time, having nearly finished his course, the attempt would be fruitless. It was my duty to teach this lesson, that the future resembles the past. To impress this truth, your senses have been deceived by presenting to your view only the vacant frame of a mirrour; objects, which appeared reflected, were represented in distant prospect; you have not been an idle spectator, but an actor in those scenes of vice and pleasure. Had you chosen to have explored the mountain, which promised glory, and not to have wandered through the plain, which offered transient delight, my advice and instruction would have been as readily offered to have acquainted you with the various paths which lead to the summit. Farewell; and remember, it is the fate of man, that Time flies too soon, and Experience arrives too late.

The traveller, having reviewed his course, observes before him Time, at a distance, on the edge of the horizon, descending with the western sun; not like him again to appear in the east; for as Time recedes, the eternal night of Death approaches.

'TIS Heaven's decree, in mercy, that mankind
Should to their future destiny be blind;
Impatient man rejects his present state
With eager step to meet approaching fate;
Yet would the future, in perspective cast,
Display the exact resemblance of the past;
When o'er the scene of human life we range,
The scenes continue, but the actors change.

Is Life to man the journey of a day?
Let us pursue the traveller on his way,
To overtake him ere his course incline
Where the high roads of youth and manhood join.

Now Health invites, behold the laughing hours
Have strewed his path, and spread his couch with flowers;
Desire is breathing on his cheek, and throws
The blush collected from the vernal rose,
The vestal flames of love his eye suffuse,
His lip is fragrant with ambrosial dews,
Languid with ecstasy soft pleasure sings,
Joy thrills the lute, and rapture tunes the strings.

Whence is the stifled sigh of discontent?
The faded cheek, the brow with wrinkles bent?
His ear no sound, his eye no visions move;
Cold is his bosom to the torch of love.
Within the rosy wreath which twines his head,
The wizard Care tormenting thorns has spread;
The scene around with gloomy vapour chills,
When cheerful sunshine warms the distant hills,
Persuades the wretch the soft and silken band
Of love parental rudely chafes his hand;
That Time his pinion poised, his sands have stopt,
And from his feeble grasp the scythe has dropt.
For Hope had whispered, "tardy Time shall bring
Freedom, and peace, and rapture on his wing:"
When Time arrived, he gave desired release,
And, with exchange of sorrow, brought increase;
He left Experience there, a reverend sage,
Of youthful strength, with outward signs of age,
Like an old oak, successive centuries crowned,
The bark decayed, the root and heart are sound.

To him the traveller now approaching cried,
Wilt thou direct my path? The sage replied,
Advice is all I give...so fate decreed
For me to follow...thou alone must lead:
As we advance, each course shall be displayed
Where wisdom guides, or pleasure would persuade.
I mark the flight of Time through every stage
Of human life, from infancy to age.
Behold this mirrour, whose reflective power,
Just like the past, presents the future hour;
The opposing figures differ but in name,
To the omniscient eye they are the same.
He looked, and there beheld a numerous train,
Whose wandering feet impressed a flowery plain;
Beyond their path a rugged mountain spread,
Steep the ascent; a temple crowned its head.
The flowery plain, alone with visions bright,
Swims in gay splendour on his ravished sight.
Commence thy task, Experience, now describe
The life and manners of each varied tribe.
The sage begins:...On yonder plain reside
The progeny of Indolence and Pride.
Those, who, without desert or labour, claim
The just reward, reserved for virtuous fame.
Here Errour lurks in ambush for his prey,
Skilled to decoy the victim, then betray.
Here blindfold reason gropes, by him misled,
Falls in the net seductive pleasure spread.
Wealth rolls his wave; and rising from the stream,
A swarm of follies sport in Fortune's beam;
Let the wind rise, and clouds the sky o'ercast,
The fluttering insects scatter in the blast.
Here *Fashion* reigns, her silken banner flies,
Bright with a thousand ever-changing dies.
In paradise was born the imperial dame,
Sin was her mother, and her sire was Shame.
Her hands, instructed by her tutress Taste,
First shaped the modest fig-leaf to the waist,
The cestus[*] next her graceful fingers wove,
Lent to Saturnia to reclaim her Jove;
The gallant chivalry of England wears
That truant garter she adorned with stars.
The frail, the noble Salisbury blushed to own
This rich tiara of Britannia's crown....
....Like Jove dethroned her sire, she then designed
The universal conquest of mankind.
Thus her edict...“a traitor him proclaim,
Whose cheek shall wear the livery of Shame.
None but the vulgar blush...our sovereign word
Expelled the dæmon to the swinish herd...

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[*] The cestus, the girdle of Venus, is described in the Iliad, book XV.

The Graces, maids of honour to the queen,
And modest Virtue, fearful to be seen,
And Pleasure and the muses here resort,
The lover's pantheon is Fashion's court.
A rainbow diadem her temples crowns,
And a cameleon zone her waist surrounds;
With every motion, her caprice so strange,
Her robes, their size, and shape, and colour change;
In graceful folds around her feet they wind,
Or fall in flowing negligence behind.
Now in transparent drapery displayed,
Increase the beauties they pretend to shade.
By Pleasure's band the court of Fashion graced,
If Virtue deign to guide the hand of Taste,
Her sovereign power both Wit and Wisdom own,
And kneeling, swear allegiance at her throne.
But this inconstant, this capricious power
Removes a favourite every passing hour,
When Vice beneath the mask of Pleasure sways,
Indignant Virtue sullenly obeys.
Then mingled ranks no marks distinct express,
Opposed in manners, but alike in dress,
In like array, the sportive, the demure,
The spotless vestal, and the frail impure.
Thus the same light transparent paintings claim,
For the cold moonbeam and the furnace flame.
If Vice appear, she comes in deep disguise,
The garb which wit adorned by taste supplies;
Then she conceals her wild, licentious air,
Her boisterous accent, her intrepid stare,
Her rough salute, her cheek with rouge imbued,
Which mocks the flush of innocence subdued.
Let folly, pleasure, whim, alternate reign,
So Vice be banished with her lawless train.
Be not, my pupil, sage Experience said,
By her insidious blandishment misled;
Like him who sailed the syren shore along,
Deaf be thine ear, nor list the witching song.
For when such meteors baneful influence shed,
Fools gape and gaze at mischief, wise men dread.
Be thou advised; and if thy curious eye
Pursue their course eccentrick through the sky,
When o'er the disk of decency they pass,
"See but in part, and darkly through a glass."

Tired of this prospect, be the scenery changed;
Far on the plain see yonder crowd arranged.
The mercenary troop are clothed and paid
By *Science*, not for service, but parade;
Who scorns in secret her degenerate train,
Their wisdom cunning, and their art chicane.

Here are a band, by [illegible] disgraced;
All their vocation to be men of taste:
A living catalogue, which never looks
Beyond the title, size, and price of books;
This stupid signpost stands at Learning's door,
Tells, "Entertainment here," but knows no more.
The spawn of Idleness, a vagrant crew,
Base sons of Genius, whom he never knew,
Complain, unless a brazen pillar rise*
To note their fame—neglected merit dies;
Bid the revolving world its course forbear,
To hear a sonnet—to Melissa's hair.
Are they to learn, the author should unite
Wisdom with wit, and profit with delight?
Who thank the shower denied the thirsty plain,
Were all its blessings scattered on the main?
If the cold soil no genial heat expand;
The sunbeam wasted on the desert sand?

As they proceed within the mirrour rise
A sable group, and thus Experience cries,
Ruin to them who dare mislead mankind!
Shut their own eyes, and then direct the blind;
Ruin to those who gain dishonest bread
With lips unclean—unconsecrated head!
Who from the worship of the temple rove
To the high hill, or the unhallowed grove;
Unlicensed on the sacred offering feast,
Degrade Heaven's altar, and defraud his priest.
Empiricks who destroy without control,
The moral constitution of the soul;
Promise to free the heart from sinful stain,
As quacks draw teeth, nor give the patient pain.
To heal the broken spirit, they infuse
Some grand specifick "for an inward bruise."†
Say, can the patent opiate they advise,
Compose to sleep the worm which never dies;
Their lotions purify from guilty fears,
Like bitter floods of penitence and tears?
To restrain vice and folly is their plan,
Not by the fear of God, but fear of man;
Unless the offence be known, no law is broke,
And future recompense for crime, a joke.
Oh, strip the miscreants of the robe they stain,
And drive them from the altar they profane.

Vain were the task, and endless, to describe
Of shape, so varied, each degenerate tribe.

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* —monumentum æris perennius. HOR.

† —telling me the sov'reignest thing on earth
Was parmacity for an inward bruise. SHAK.

Of vile impostors; wretches, who degrade
A liberal science to a menial trade
Riches and power their sordid souls inflame;
Content with fortune, they deserve not fame.
These haunt the Forum...these the law disgrace,
Like birds of prey, who wear the human face;
Voracious harpies, they the food defile,
By rapine seized, that none may share the spoil.
They can fix bounds, or landmarks can remove,
Last testaments at pleasure break, or prove;
To furnish proof, in perjury they trade,
Invent an oath, or sell one ready made,
And from a chaos of discordant lies,
Systems elaborately harmonize.
If raised by fortune, though by crime debased,
Have these the senatorial robe disgraced?
They have a patient ear, smiles at command,
A supple body, an extended hand,
A rapid sight to instantly decide
Which is the weak, and which the strongest side;
For right or wrong indifferently they vote,
Change principle or party with their coat.

There is to man, and so there is to heaven,
A crime so black it cannot be forgiven!
'Tis not of human growth; the root is laid
In hell, and earth the branches overshade;
It is the sin of fiends, apostates base,
Who shun the light which flashes in their face,
Whose lips express the lie the heart denies,
And the conviction which it feels, defies;
The patient power, protecting them, deride,
And spurn the bounty which their wants supplied.
Who scatter, like a mist, delusion round,
Folly to blind, and ignorance to confound,
When they obscure the light of truth divine,
Then, sprung from filth, these exhalations shine.

Sir, you mean me! some warning conscience cries.
You mean yourself, Experience replies:
Full many a tedious corner I go round,
Lest, my good friend, I trespass on your ground.
Who sat?—the picture of a dog I drew;
Not "Tray,* nor Blanch, nor Sweetheart"—Sir, did you?
Indeed no fancy portraits were designed,
Far less the individual...but the kind.
I'm no assassin, murdering in the dark,
'Tis not the *fool*...the *folly* is my mark;
Swift flies the vagrant arrow from the string,
Shot at a venture, it may pierce a king.

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* ————the little dogs,
Tray, Blanch, and Sweetheart, see they bark at me. SHAK. *Lear*.

When timid friends retire, and hide their head
Behind the gathering cloud misfortune spread;
When secret slander bids her ruffian band
"Strike the death blow, but hide the guilty hand,"
And with the point of her envenomed dart
Slowly engraves her memory on the heart;
Then he will change...not *principle*, but *place*,
Far worse than death, the patriot fears disgrace;
With dignified retirement live content,
Self-satisfied, contemplate life well spent.
And when at last his country shall be just,
Malice and envy buried with the dust,
Then from the tomb, ascending to the skies,
Truth's injured spirit, just released, shall rise;
There memory feels her power of voice too weak,
There kneeling Gratitude, too full to speak,
His eye with mute, but most expressive praise,
In yonder temple views with steadfast gaze,
Beyond the grasp of Time, immortal Fame
Unite to WASHINGTON'S her ADAMS' name.

Experience ceased; his eyes the traveller cast
Within the mirrour, to review the past;
A straight and narrow path the plain divides,
Which to the rugged mountain's summit guides.
Above, her temple stood; the pillars rise
Founded on adamant, and reach the skies.
Let us approach, he cried, the sacred fane,
Nor longer traverse this ignoble plain.
To him the sage replied, with frown severe,
Yet, as he spoke, restrained the falling tear,....
Just undeceived? why hast thou spent the day
Where fashion, folly, vice, and pleasure stray?
Now thy limbs totter, scarce the blood maintains
Its lazy current through thy stiffening veins;
Weary and weak, 'tis now too late to climb
The mount; behold the downward course of Time;
This was no mirrour, but a vacant frame,
To teach thee, past and future are the same.
What seemed illusive to thine eyes, was true;
What seemed reflection, was the distant view.
Not an amused spectator hast thou been,
Thou wert a real actor in the scene.
The plain, the mountain, both appeared in sight;
This promised glory, that ensured delight.
Reason subdued, thy conquering senses chose,
Averse to toil, inglorious repose.
Farewell! and learn, 'tis man's disastrous fate,
Time flies too soon, Experience comes too late.

Pejusque letho flagitium timet. HOR.

He ceased. With languid look the traveller glanced
The distant point from whence he first advanced;
Now far behind him, dwindling in his sight,
With swiftest pinion Time pursued his flight;
He with the western sun declining fast,
The outward circle of the horizon past,
No more like him the "eastern hill to climb";
Death is to man the eternal night of Time.

NOTES.

That truant garter, she adorned with stars.—Line 182.

The order of the garter was instituted by Edward III, in the year 1350. Many events, which belong to remote periods of English history, are involved in obscurity. Its origin has been attributed to an accident, which is related to have happened to the countess of Salisbury, the mistress of Edward. Perhaps other conjectures are more plausible, and have nearer affinity to truth; but, all the world knows, truth better suits the purpose of the historian than the poet.

Charles I. afterwards added the *star* to the insignia of the order.

Voracious harpies, they the food defile.—L. 193.

They are described in the third book of the Æneid:

> Triſtius haud illis monſtrum, nec sævior ulla
> Pestis, & via Deum Stygiis sese extulit undis
> Virginei volucrum vultus———
> uncæque manus & pallida semper
> Ora fame.
> Harpiæ, & magnis quatiunt clangoribus alas
> Diripiuntque dapes, contactuque omnia fœdant
> Immundo: tum vox tetrum dira inter odorem.
> Rursum in secessu longe, sub rupe cavata
> Arboribus clausi circum atque horrentibus umbris,
> Instruimus mensas, arisque reponimus ignem.
> Rursum ex diverso cœli, cæcisque latebris,
> Turba sonans prædam pedibus circumvolat uncis,
> Polluit ora dapes:———
> invadunt socii & nova prælia tentant
> Obscænas pelagi ferro fœdare volucres
> Sed neque vim plumis ullam, nec vulnera tergo
> Accipiunt.

If this were not narrative, the nefarious practices of an unprincipled attorney could not be more faithfully delineated in allegorical representation. We instantly know the griping talons, the pale famished visage, the noisy nonsense, "magnis clangoribus alas." We see him impertinently intrude into the recesses of domestick retirement, an unwelcome guest both at the table and the altar. If his conduct provoke indignation, he neither feels, nor regards in character or person, disgrace or chastisement.

> "...neque vim plumis ullam, nec vulnera tergo
> "Accipiunt."

Have these the senatorial robe disgraced?—L. 202.

In ancient Rome, eloquence was principally confined to the senate and the forum. Having described characters who disgrace the bar, we proceed to mark others engaged in political pursuits. The term, senatorial, is here opposed to the term, forensick, and is not intended for a particular body, but for all who dishonour the legislative station, whether at present in publick or private life. By ill-nature more than ignorance it may be invidiously misapplied.

Swift flies the vagrant arrow from the string.—L. 233.

Experience may not be so happy in this allusion to the sacred writings as to be readily understood. Chronicles, b. II. chap. xviii. "And a certain man drew a bow at a venture, and smote the king between the joints of the harness," &c.— He intends to illustrate his preceding remarks....He aims at the whole flock, he does not select a particular bird. Yet small and great being equally exposed, it may happen that one of the leaders may be casually wounded by his arrow.

THE BOSTON REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1806.

> Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 28.

Continued from page 4[illegible]8.

Vol. I. Part I. of The New Cyclopædia, or Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences. By Abraham Rees. First American edition. 4to. Philadelphia.

We now proceed to expose other important alterations, which the American editors have not thought proper particularly to indicate to their readers.

The article Accommodation *in Theology* in the *English* edition consists of about *four columns and a half*, in which compass much curious and interesting learning is introduced from several eminent writers. In the *American* edition all this is reduced to a very meagre half-column, or about *one ninth* part of the original. Two whole pages are thus struck out, and the reader is not informed of it! But this is not all. A *reference*, which Dr. Rees makes to another part of the work, the article Quotation, where the subject would doubtless be resumed, is also suppressed. Are we to understand by this, that the American editors intend to suppress the whole article, to which this reference is made? If such is to be the management in the succeeding volumes, the publick, we trust, will manifest that indignation, which is due to conduct worthy of the darkest ages of monkish cunning.

Adam *in Biography* is another example of numerous and unwarrantable deviations from the original work; and none of these alterations, though among the most important in the volume, are designated by any mark. It should be observed also, that the concluding sentence of a paragraph in the original article rendered it necessary to make a reference to the articles, Fall *of* Man and Original Sin. That sentence is struck out of the *American* edition, and with it *the reference*, and a new sentence of a very different import is substituted by the American editors; from which it is to be presumed, that those two important articles are to be wholly omitted. This has proceeded, undoubtedly, from the same motives with the suppression of the reference in the other instance we mentioned. We leave the liberal-minded reader to determine what name such conduct deserves.

We forbear extending our remarks upon other articles, in which similar mutilations have been made, but we think some of our readers will feel obliged to us, if we point out such as we have discovered, and leave the comparison of them with the original to the leisure of individuals. And here we would observe, that it is not merely in articles of magnitude that such reprehensible mutilations are made; the same spirit may be traced from the largest to the smallest articles of a particular kind, throughout the volume.

The following are the principal mutilations, in addition to the preceding, which we have discovered.

ABSURDITY—A small part of this article is struck out.

ACTUAL SIN—This article has suffered a small and not important retrenchment.

ADOPTION *in Theology* is shamefully mutilated, and an addition is made near the end of it, which ought to have been distinguished as an American alteration.

ADORATION *absolute*—A part of this little article has been lopped off.

AERIANS—This article is also considerably mutilated; and of the next,

AETIUS, we can say something more; for here the learned American editors, who "correct" and "revise" this edition, have, by expunging *one* of Rees' references to Gibbon's History, while they retain the other, fallen into the amusing absurdity of referring to that author with a *ubi supra*, when they have not mentioned his History before in the whole article!

AFFIX *in Grammar* has several trifling alterations, which we leave the Hebrew scholar to estimate, and we finish our list with

AGNOËTAE, where there is a suppression, which most readers would think of importance.

These are the principal variations of magnitude which we have noted in our copy of the Cyclopædia; but, as we have not gone through every article with equal attention, it is highly probable that many have escaped us.

We shall close this part of our Review with a few general remarks. One of the first reflections, which the reader will make when he arrives at the end of this volume will be, upon *the different manner* in which the different classes of articles are republished. He cannot but observe the scrupulous care, with which insignificant American additions or alterations in the *scientifick* articles are distinguished by brackets; while the *theological* articles, and such as are connected with them, in which the most important changes have been made, are mutilated without such notice to the reader.

Why this difference? If the American editors do not agree with Dr. Rees in religious sentiments; if they believe his opinions to be such as the Scriptures do not warrant, let them openly confute him; but let them allow *him* to be heard as well as *themselves*, and above all let them not stigmatize themselves by undertaking to pass off their own sentiments as those of that learned divine or his associates. And we have the greater right to demand of the American publisher (from his own prospectus) that a fair hearing should be given to all denominations of persons, especially upon *theological* questions; for in the *United States* religious sects are more various, and religious liberty is supposed to be enjoyed in a greater degree, than in almost any other place on the globe; and the American publisher of the Cyclopædia, among other recommendations of *his* edition, informs his subscribers that it is to be "*adapted to this country*;" from which general recommendation, he surely could never mean to except the *theological* part of the publication—the very part which in this country should be the least tainted with prejudice.

We shall now point out some of the principal additions and improvements in this edition.

After half a dozen trifling articles of geography (taken from Dictionaries and Gazetteers that are in every body's hands) which are wholly unworthy of a place in this work, unless it is to contain a *complete system of Geography*, we come to the life of Sir Ralph ABERCROMBY, which is a considerable article, but appears to be taken almost verbatim from a hasty English publication of little authority, entitled "Public Characters." As a variation from Dr. Rees' edition, it ought to have been designated, and the authority cited, as is generally done in his biographical articles.

The article ABORTION has been somewhat enlarged.

ABSORBENTS is considerably augmented, and the additional matter is very properly put in brackets. Whether the article is *improved*, we leave to the decision of gentlemen of the faculty; for when doctors disagree, Reviewers should not be obliged to decide. We cannot, however, commend the national vanity, displayed in these additions; still less do we approve of the contemptuous insinuation against almost all the medical characters in England, who seem to be charged with adopting the theory of *cutaneous absorption* merely from prejudice, because "they were no doubt natives of England," and were "bred up in the firm belief of it."*

The article ACADEMIES has also several useful additions; but the arrangement of the whole article does not appear to be more perspicuous than that of the English edition, which has been deservedly censured.

AFRICA has large and important additions made to it from the travels of Mr. Browne and Mr. Horneman: This, we believe, will be thought the most valuable of the American additions.

Such are the principal improvements we have remarked in this portion of the work.

We observed in the beginning of our review, that Mr. Bradford had resolved not to content himself with giving to his countrymen a mere *copy* of Dr. Rees' Cyclopedia, but promised *amendments and additions*. We presumed from this, that he had engaged "literary and scientifick characters," who would faithfully perform this task; but, without calling in question their competency, we are sorry to find they have been so negligent as to suffer many errours of the English edition to be copied into theirs in the most servile manner.

They tell us, after Dr. Rees, under the article ABGARUS, that the authenticity of that prince's correspondence with our Saviour, has been admitted by archbishop Wake, although the contrary is the fact, and the mistake has been pointed out in an English review of this work.*

Under the article ABO, a town of Sweden, Dr. Rees mentions a seminary of learning as an "academy," which should have been called a university, according to the definition given by the author, under the article Academy in the same volume. It is a little extraordinary the American editors should not have taken notice of it, when it has been called a university in Guthrie's geography for many years past. The royal high court of judicature, at this place, is said by Dr. Rees to be the *only* one in Finland; which is not true. During the reign of Gustavus III. a similar royal high court of justice was established at *Wasa*, for the northern district of Finland; that at Abo being for the southern district.

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*Since writing the above, we have seen and perused the Pennsylvania Inaugural Dissertations referred to in this article, and, whatever the fact may be respecting the absorption of oil of turpentine and camphor by the skin, we are far from thinking that the experiments there related satisfactorily establish the fact, that mercury is not absorbed by or through the skin.

*See Brit. Critick, vol. xxvi. p. 222.

Academy *French*—Mention is here made of this body as now in existence under this name; and it is observed that they meet in the Louvre, in an apartment "now called *l'Academie Françoise*;" and that "at breaking up, forty silver medals are distributed among them, having on one side the *king of France's* head, and on the reverse *protecteur de l'Academie*," &c.! ! This is surely an oversight, but it is an oversight that will amuse, rather than offend, the reader; one would imagine, however, that the incorrectness of the article, as applied to the present time, must have been observed by the American editors, when at the distance of only two or three pages from it, a reference is made to the [National] Institute, of which, we believe, the *old Academy* spoken of in this article, or rather individual members of it, now form one of the *Classes*.

At the close of the article "Accent, *in Grammar*," is this observation—that "as minutely as the accents of *words* have been studied, those of *sentences* seem to have been *utterly* overlooked." We were surprised at this remark, and especially to find nothing here said of the labours of Walker, who has certainly investigated this very subject (if we apprehend the force of the remark) with great success. This is, upon the whole, an admirable article—one of the best in the work; but the remark above quoted is certainly incorrect.

Act *of Faith*, or *auto da fé*.—We are here informed (in what we take to be an extract from Dr. Geddes' Tracts) of the manner of burning hereticks, as practised by the *Inquisition*; and in the course of the narrative it is said, that "a scaffold is erected in the *Terreiro de Paco* [Terreiro do Paço] big enough for two or three thousand people," &c. As this paragraph here stands, it does not appear where, or what, the *Terreiro do Paço* is, and the uninformed reader would be likely to conclude that it is an appropriate place, in *all Roman Catholic countries*, for burning hereticks; whereas the fact is, and we presume it so appears in the Tracts here quoted, that the Terreiro do Paço is a publick square in Lisbon; and, we presume, Dr. Geddes is here describing the ceremony of burning, as practised in *Lisbon*, and not in Roman Catholic countries *in general*. It would have been proper, also, for the information of the younger class of readers, to have added to Dr. G.'s account, that this horrible ceremony has not been witnessed in Lisbon, nor, we believe, in any other Catholic country, for many years.

Acosta, Joseph—We are here informed, that Acosta wrote a *Naturall and Morall History of the West-Indies*, and that it was first printed in *Spanish*, in 1591, and in *French*, in 1600. As this is one of the most interesting of the early works upon *America*, the American editors might have added, that it was also printed in *English*, with additions, London, 1604.

Adolphus, Frederick—king of Sweden, succeeded to the government in 1751, *but was not the son of his predecessor Frederick*, who had no children by his Queen Ulrica, sister of Charles XII. Ad. Fred. was chosen successor to the crown by the estates of the kingdom, in 1742 or 43, and bore the title of *Crown-Prince*, or heir to crown, until his accession to the throne, at the death of Frederick, in 1751.

We have not selected these errours for the purpose of depreciating the value of the *American* edition, but as evidence of a degree of negligence that was not to have been expected in the second impression of a work, which the publisher sends out as "revised" and "corrected" by "several literary and scientifick" characters in this country. We are also the more particular in our remarks at this early stage of the publication that there may be the less room for animadversion in the succeeding volumes; and from the same motives we would observe, that the *typographical* errours seem to be more numerous than we have usually found in the *Philadelphia* editions; though, perhaps not more in proportion than should be expected, from the difficulty of execution of works like the present. We shall subjoin a list of the more important of those which we have noted in our copy.

We have now finished our examination of the first half-volume of the Cyclopedia; and, notwithstanding we have, as our duty to the publick demanded, spoken without reserve of the very exceptionable manner in which certain parts of it are re-published, yet we cannot but commend the enterprising spirit of Mr. Bradford, who has ventured upon the re-publication of a work of such magnitude. While we frankly avow, too, that the conducting of the work, as this first half-volume has been, would, in our judgment, be a forfeiture of the liberal patronage it has obtained (to say nothing of it as an unjustifiable infringement of the rights of Dr. Rees, a fellow-member of the commonwealth of literature), we cannot but hope, that Mr. Bradford will, as it is in his power to do, by *real* improvements render his edition superiour to the original work; and that for the labour, anxiety, and hazard, to which he has exposed himself, he may meet with ample remuneration in the thanks, as well as the pecuniary favour of his countrymen.

ERRATA.

Article Aalst or *Alest*. This second name, we believe, should be *Alost*.

Abascia and Abassa—In the *references* at the end of these two articles, for Abhkas *read* Abkhas.

Abatement *in Law*, for "*cause* or *action*," query, if not "*cause* of action."

Abbaisseur, for *quartour* read *quatuor*.

Abbreviator, for *manore* read *minore*.

Abbutals, for *See* Abbuttals read *See* Abuttals.

Under the article Aberration, the rule for finding the aberration in right ascension is certainly incorrect, or rather defective. This is copied from Rees' edition, into which it appears to have been unsuspectingly transcribed from *Hutton's Mathematical Dictionary*.

Abelard, for *dialects* read *dialectics!*

Abernethy in the Biog. Britan. is said to have been born on the 9th Oct. The Cyclopædia says, the 19th Oct. 1680.

Abiel, we believe, is a small town of *Estremadura*, and not of *Beira*, in Portugal.

Acacia *bastard*. The locust timber is here, by a whimsical mistake, said to be used for ship-*tunnels*, instead of *trennels*.

Academies, paragr. 3. For *three sects of* Academies, read three sects of Academicks.

Academy *Naval*; a reference is here made to Academy, where (as is observed in an English Review) nothing further is said about Naval Academies.

Academy *of Arts* in New-York. We are here told of a valuable collection called the *Piranessi* & [and] *Calcography*. Is this the true name, or should it be *Piranesian, Calcography?*

Acceleration, col. 4th, line 8th, from the bottom, for $S\frac{1}{4} : s\frac{1}{2}$ *read* $S^{\frac{1}{2}} : s^{\frac{1}{2}}$. This errour is also copied from the English edition.

Achilleum in ancient geography is misplaced, as is also

Achilleus or Aquileus.

Acre (of land) col. 2. for *æra of France*, read *area of France*.

Addition *in Algebra* contains a typographical error of some importance.

In Adhesion *in Philosophy*, col. 3. at bottom, for $b=-4\frac{8}{9}$ read $b=4\frac{8}{9}$.

Ad *libitum* is used in musick, not for "a *piacere*," but for *à piacere*.

Aërophobia for *rapping* read *wrapping!* &c. &c.

Aërostation, *practice of*, col. 2. In this article there is a gross errour in the calculation of the force of ascension of balloons of different diameters. This error also is copied from Rees' edition, into which it was admitted from Hutton's *Math. Dictionary*.

Near the bottom of the same column there is an errour copied also from the Eng. edit. It stands thus: "between $1\frac{1}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{6}$ of it." It should be, "between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{6}$."

Among the omissions we should have mentioned the following articles:

Acam—See *Acham* and *Akem*.

Acanni or Akanni—see *Achem*; which are to be found in the Eng. edition, but not in the American.*

ART. 45.

Chart of the harbours of Salem, Marblehead, Beverly, and Manchester, from a survey taken in the years 1804, 5, *and* 6. *By Nathaniel Bowditch,* A.M. A.A.S. *assisted by Geo. Burchmore, and Wm. Ropes, 3d. with a pamphlet of "Directions," for sailing into those harbours.* 8vo. *pp.* 30. The *Chart* engraved by Hooker & Fairman, at Salem, 1806; the "Directions" printed at Newburyport, by E. M. Blunt.

MR. Bowditch is already advantageously known to the publick by his improved *Practical Navigator*, a publication which has superseded every other of the kind in this country. The present work will not lessen his deservedly high reputation.

In our review of June last, we observed, that it was the complaint of every seaman, *that there was not a chart of the extensive shores of New-England, upon which he could rest the safety of his ship.* We rejoice that the remark has hardly gone from us, before the grounds of this complaint are in part removed, by the present admirable chart of one of the most difficult tracts of our coast. But our joy is a little damped by the reflexion, that a work of this kind does not appear under the sanction of government, as part of a *general survey* of our extensive territory. It is certainly among the wonders of this wonderful age, that a government, whose stability is believed to rest on the diffusion of knowledge; whose wealth may be said to spring almost wholly from *commerce*; whose strength and security in a great measure depend upon its *sea-faring* citizens; we say, it is a little extraordinary, that a government of this nature should be so insensible to the claims of a large proportion of its citizens, and so indifferent to its own honour, as to suffer enterprizing individuals to snatch from it the only kind of applause which it should be ambitious to obtain; we mean that applause which is the sure consequence of promoting *useful national works*; among which maps and charts, with a *commercial* people, hold the first rank. But we repress complaint, and enter upon our subject.

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* Since the above was written, the publiſher of the American edition has addreſſed the following letter to a number of the ſubſcribers in this town and vicinity in reply to their Remonſtrance.

"Philadelphia, Aug. 21, 1806.

"I take the liberty to anſwer your communication by aſſuring you that the ſubſcribers will not, in future, have any cauſe of complaint in regard to retrenchments, as I determined, immediately after the publication of the firſt half volume, 'to give the text of the Engliſh edition entire, except when erroneous in point of fact; and, at the ſame time, to counteract the tendency of any pernicious doctrines which it might be found to contain, by additional remarks and references diſtinguiſhed by crotchets from the original article.'

"You will be pleaſed to communicate this information to the ſubſcribers of the remonſtrance; and, at the ſame time, aſſure them that, although no exertion has been, or ſhall be wanting on my part to render the American edition ſuperiour to the Engliſh copy, I wiſh not to bind a ſingle ſubſcriber to the fulfilment of his engagements with me, who believes that I have, in any way, intentionally, forfeited mine with the publick.

"Although, in the conducting of the American edition of the Cyclopædia, the Editors will not permit themſelves to be forced from what they conceive their line of duty, by the trifling or captious objections of individuals, or the fear of loſing ſubſcribers, they will, always, pay reſpectful attention to ſuggeſtions or remarks, originating in a deſire to aſſiſt them in their labours, and tending to the improvement of the work, and the correction of errours which, but for ſuch friendly advice, they might inadvertently commit.

I have the honour to be, &c.

SAMUEL F. BRADFORD."

The chart before us, as has been observed in the title, comprehends four of the harbours of Massachusetts, of which the port of Salem is the most important. The number of vessels belonging to that port, many of which being employed in the East India trade are of a large burthen, and the numerous shoals and rocks in its harbour, rendered a correct chart of it peculiarly necessary. But the necessity of this publication, and the great care with which it has been made, will best appear by the following extracts from the "Directions" which accompany the chart.

> The only chart (says Mr. Bowditch) of the entrance of the harbours of Salem, Marblehead, Beverly, and Manchester, is that published from the survey taken by HOLLAND and his assistants, just before the American revolutionary war. That period was particularly unfavourable for obtaining an accurate survey of the sea-coast, as the Americans were generally opposed to its being done at that time, fearing that it would give the British the great advantage of being able safely to enter with their armed ships into any of our harbours. In consequence of this, Holland received but little assistance from our pilots, in exploring the sunken ledges and shoals off our harbours; and as it was almost impossible to discover them without such assistance, they were generally omitted by him. This deficiency renders those charts in a great degree useless, though they are accurate as respects the bearings and distances of the islands and the coast.
>
> From the time of Holland's survey, till the year 1794, nothing was done towards obtaining a more accurate chart. In that year a general survey of the state was ordered by the legislature; but it is to be regretted that this survey was not directed to be made in a manner calculated to ensure accuracy in the execution of it. Instead of appointing one or more competent persons to make the *whole* survey, and providing the best instruments for the purpose, the survey was entrusted to the several towns; in consequence of which, the *responsibility*, which an object of such magnitude demanded, was divided among so many different surveyors (not to mention other sources of errour, as the variety of instruments, &c.) that the laudable intentions of the legislature were very imperfectly carried into execution; and the map, formed from these different and discordant surveys, was such as was to have been expected.

Mr. Bowditch then observes, that in pursuance of this order of the legislature, a survey of the town of Salem was undertaken by the late Capt. John Gibaut, whom Mr. B. assisted ; but the time allowed for completing it was so short, that few of the ledges and shoals were satisfactorily explored ; so that the survey proved almost useless for *nautical* purposes. He then says that in 1804 and 1805, he undertook, with the assistance of Mr. George Burchmore and Mr. William Ropes 3d, to complete the survey of Capt. Gibaut ; but upon examination, it was found so imperfect, that "it became necessary to make a new chart from observations taken with more precision ;" and

> To do this (says he) an excellent theodolite, made by Adams, furnished with a telescope and cross wires, was procured to measure the angles and a good chain to measure the distances. With these instruments, the bearings and distances of the shore from Gale's point in Manchester, to Phillip' point in Lynn (the two extremities of this survey) were carefully ascertained ; and the necessary observations were taken for fixing with accuracy the situation of the islands. Soundings were taken throughout the whole extent of the survey, particularly round the dangerous ledges and shoals, several of which were explored, that were hardly known by our best pilots, as *Archer's Rock, Chappel's Ledge, Martin's rocks,* the *Rising States Ledge, John's Ledge, Misery Ledge, Pilgrim Ledge, House Ledge,* and others ; most of which were so little known, that names had not been given to them ; and during the whole time employed on the survey, which was above *eighty* days, from *two* to *five* persons were hired to assist in sounding and measuring. From these observations the new chart was plotted off, and an accurate engraving of it made, &c.

He further informs us, that "the leading marks for avoiding the ledges were not taken from the chart, but were determined by sailing and sounding round them ; so that on this account the directions are less liable to be erroneous."

They, who are best acquainted with *practical* surveying, will best know how to estimate the labour of a survey conducted with the care which appears to have been used in the present case, and, of course, will be most ready to acknowledge the value of Mr. B's chart. *Three months*, it seems, were employed by Mr. Bowditch, with his assistants, Messrs. Burchmore and Ropes, in the actual labour of surveying, (during which time from *two to five persons* were hired to assist in sounding and measuring) exclusive of the days, nay months, which must doubtless have been employed on shore in adjusting the various admeasurements, and plotting off the whole chart. Nothing but an ardent love of science, united with an ardent love of country, we should think, could carry an unaided individual through so laborious and expensive an undertaking.

In a work of such uncommon merit as the present we have thought it a duty which we owe to the science of our country, to be more than usually particular in our examination ; and in forming our opinion of the great accuracy of this work, we have not rested solely on the presumption arising from the extraordinary degree of labour bestowed upon it, (which from Mr. B's character, we have no doubt is faithfully detailed in the extracts above quoted) but we have done all that could be done by persons not minutely acquainted with the several harbours laid down in it ; we have employed considerable time, and with great satisfaction, in examining it by the side of Holland's chart of the coast, which is the best extant. Upon comparing the two, we have been astonished at the deficiencies of Holland's, in the very part which was most important to mariners— the ledges, shoals and soundings, many of which were wholly *omitted*. Among the omissions, we observe the very long tract of foul ground in the vicinity of Baker's island. The shoal ground, called the *Middle Ground*, which the "Directions" inform us is *a mile in length*, and in which we see soundings marked of no more than *five feet*, does not appear in Holland's chart. Nor do we there find any of the numerous and dangerous ledges between *Coney island* and *Peach's point*, and between the *Great Misery* and *West Beach*.—*Bowditch's* Ledge, *Misery* Ledge, *Gale's* Ledge, the *Whale's Back*, and others are not laid down in it. *Satan*, or *Black Rock*, which is laid down by B. as an island is omitted by Holland. We venture to say all these are *deficiencies* in Holland's chart, because we *do not* find them there, and we *do* find them in Mr. Bowditch's; and we presume this gentleman has not laid down any shoal that does not exist; it is more likely that there may be some inconsiderable ones which even his great assiduity has not discovered; though, when we consider how very minute Mr. B. has been in the work before us, we cannot believe there is a single omission of importance to navigators. He informs us indeed in the "Directions," that he explored several shoals and ledges "that were hardly known to our best pilots," and many "which were so little known, that names had not been given to them." These are some of the principal advantages, in our opinion, which this beautiful chart has over the best hitherto published; and they are advantages, which, we feel confident, will ensure to the able author an ample indemnity for the time and expense he has bestowed upon it, and will reflect credit upon the science of our country.

It is proper for us in works of this kind to speak particularly of the execution of the engraver's part; and it is with great satisfaction we can assure the publick, that it has been finely engraved by Messrs. Hooker and Fairman, at Salem, and, we presume, under the inspection of Mr. Bowditch; for he informs us in the "Directions," that the engraving is correct: It is printed on English superfine imperial wove paper. It would give us pleasure also, if we could with truth say that the "Directions" were printed in a style suitable to the elegance of the Chart. The *type* is good, though rather too small; in the paper, however, we perceive a little of the odour of what has heretofore been called *Salem* economy, but what, in this instance, must be denominated *Newburyport* economy, for there, it seems, the "Directions" were printed. We cannot entertain the suspicion, (if we may judge from the liberality which appears in the paper and engraving of the chart) that Mr. Bowditch is chargeable with the parsimony apparent in the "Directions." We ought to observe also, that excellent as the engraving of the chart is, the skill of Messrs. Hooker and Fairman doubtless appears to less advantage than it would in a map, which affords a greater field for a display of their art. This chart is constructed on a scale of about three inches to a mile.

Such is the admirable work, which Mr. Bowditch offers to his countrymen, and particularly to the sea-faring portion of his fellow-citizens; and it will doubtless be received with the same marked preference which his other nautical publications have found in the community.

For our part, we hope the applause which the work deserves, and will assuredly find, will not be the only consequence of its publication. The imperfection of our present maps and charts is well known to those *who have it in their power*, and, if we may judge from their well intended efforts, *are solicitous*, to remove this discredit from our country...we mean the legislature of this state. They well know that we have many unexplored harbours, especially in the eastern parts of our coast, a thorough knowledge of some one of which might, by saving only a single ship, be the means of preserving many lives, and perhaps secure property enough to pay the expense of a general survey; at least, it would lessen the hazards to which our vessels are exposed upon the coast during inclement and stormy seasons. We should think indeed, if the legislature should not order such a survey, that some of our liberal underwriters, who are certainly deeply interested, would gladly contribute to the expense of it. But we do hope, that the present publication, by showing us how much can be effected by the ability and enterprize of an unassisted individual, will stimulate those who can command the resources of the state, we mean of *Old Massachusetts*, (for we sincerely hope that *she* will have the honour of leading the way among her sister states, as one of *her* natives has done among his fellow citizens) to order a correct survey to be made of our whole coast, and even of the whole state, under the direction of one or two able surveyors. Such an undertaking would indeed be worthy of the publick spirit of New-Englandmen; such a work would, without any other point of pre-eminence, justly entitle the government of Massachusetts to a rank with the most patriotick rulers, as well as with the most liberal patrons of science.

ART. 46.

The numbers of Phocion, which were originally published in the Charleston Courier, in 1806, on the subject of Neutral Rights. Charleston, Courier Office. pp. 70.

THIS pamphlet is written with ability, and the arguments and reflections are those of a statesman. The author condemns that purblind policy, which extends only to objects that may be seen and felt, and maintains "that our *national measures* ought not to be predicated upon a fluctuating state of things, or to look merely to present circumstances, but should be bottomed on steady and permanent principles."

In considering the right of neutrals to interfere in the colonial commerce of belligerents, he examines the subject under two aspects; 1, as to the *direct* intercourse between the mother country and her colony; 2dly, as to the *indirect* intercourse, by an *intermediate* voyage to a port of the neutral. The *denial* of direct intercourse, he contends, is an antient principle, not only enforced during the war of 1756, but universally deemed a part of the Law of Nations; and he proves that Mr. Jefferson in his Notes, and Mr. Madison in his commentaries on the commercial resolutions of 1794, warmly advocated that principle, which they now inconsistently denominate an *interpolation*. 3dly. As to the *indirect* trade, he observes, that what cannot lawfully be done *directly*, cannot lawfully be done *indirectly*, and that we are engaged in an unlawful commerce when we become the carriers of colonial produce to the belligerent mother country."

We transcribe the following extract as containing a specimen of the author's manner, and a summary of his inferences.

He observes,

> That the whole ground of claim, assumed by our Executive, is so broad, so inconsistent with the rights of others, and so unsupported by law and precedent, as to promise no other alternative but a disastrous war or disgraceful concession—that the publick assumption of grounds beyond what we know to be just, and what we ultimately mean ot insist on, is dishonest and impolitick, and ought to be disavowed and discountenanced by every good citizen—that even granting we might, on the present occasion, extort from England an admission of such extensive claims, it would be in the end injurious to ourselves; because it would divert our mercantile citizens from the pursuit of a commerce generally beneficial to the nation, to one partially so to a few individuals, by inducing many commercial men to leave the staple productions of our own country rotting in our stores, in order to transport the more valuable staples of foreign colonies, thus sacrificing our agricultural and general commercial interests to the enriching of a small class of men—we mean the *carrying* merchants:—Because the establishment of the doctrine contended for would, the United States being at war with Great-Britain, deprive the former of the most powerful weapons against the latter, by enabling her to turn over to neutral powers her whole colonial commerce, the chief object of our vengeance; because, this trade is injurious to the general commercial interest, by perpetually bringing us into alarming collision with England, a country with whom it is our interest to maintain the strictest commercial harmony; Because the enforcement of this claim, at this crisis, would, by depriving Great-Britain of the effects of her naval superiority, leave her at the mercy of the monstrous and wide-spreading power of France, and by breaking down the only mound, which now resists it, expose our liberties to be swept away by the devouring flood which has desolated all Europe; because, should the United States, taking advantage of the reluctance of the British cabinet to increase their enemies, coerce them into a present admission of this claim, the benefits, if any, would be but temporary, and would soon be followed, under other circumstances, by a violent struggle on their part, to rescind the grant, or a mean relinquishment of it on ours; because, a reasonable modification of this claim, securing to us a fair *indirect* trade, with the enemy, the free admission of colonial products into the United States, and the free export thereof from the United States to other countries, and at the same time to Great-Britain her belligerent rights, under such regulations as might be reciprocally stipulated, would have been easily obtained by negociation, and would have prevented all that ill-blood and acrimony, which will now certainly obstruct, perhaps defeat it.

The reputed author of this pamphlet is WILLIAM SMITH of South Carolina, an eloquent and honourable gentleman, who adorns his country, and who is one of those of whom Bolingbroke says, that "if they retire from the world, their splendour accompanies them, and enlightens even the obscurity of their retreat."

ART. 47.

The Christian Monitor: a religious periodical work. By a society for promoting christian knowledge, piety, and charity. No. I. Second Edition.

Several errours in the first edition are here corrected; slight alterations in the arrangement of the subjects are made; its style, which in some instances was harsh, is softened; and some of its less acceptable articles wholly omitted; so that the tract is now perhaps as unexceptionable for the purposes of devotion, as any which the country affords.

ART. 48.

The Christian Monitor. No II. Containing observations on the life and character of Jesus Christ. By a society &c. Munroe & Francis. pp. 192.

THE contents of this number are as follow. Sect. 1. Piety of our Saviour. 2. The same. 3. The benevolence of our Saviour. 4. Our Lord's compassion. 5. His justice. 6. His temperance. 7. His meekness. 8. His humility. 9. His fortitude. 10. His veracity. 11. His natural affection. 12. His friendship, conduct to those in authority, and prudence. "The matter of this number of the Monitor is principally taken," as the introduction informs us, "from the second part of a work, entitled *Observations on our Lord's conduct as a divine instructor, and on the excellence of his moral character, by William Newcombe, D. D. Bishop of Waterford.*" We approve both the design and manner of this treatise; and think that its compiler could hardly have selected a more interesting and instructive topick for the edification of its readers.

ART. 49.

A sermon preached before the convention of the clergy of Massachusetts in Boston, May 29, 1806. By Joseph Lyman, D. D. Pastor of the church in Hatfield. Boston, Carlisle. 8*vo. pp.* 24.

FROM the 1 Cor. xi. 1. and Acts x. 38. the author professes to exhibit the life of Christ to the imitation of his disciples. But although, by his particularity in conjoining two distant passages, we should naturally suppose that he meant to keep closely to his text, yet he omits the consideration of some important articles of our Saviour's preaching and practice, and insists, somewhat confusedly upon others of which the history of Jesus gives no example. The piety of our Lord, together with what he taught concerning the being, perfections, and providence of God, we believe, are not even mentioned. Contrary to the "humility and gentleness" of which Dr. L. speaks, and in which he is no doubt a worthy proficient, he has contrived, on a subject every way suited to unite the views and sentiments of christians, rather coarsely to obtrude the most obnoxious opinions of a particular sect upon an unoffending auditory; but we apprehend that the enemies of calvinism will manifest no displeasure, that a man, who seems to be one of its pillars, should be able to do no more for the support of its frail and crumbling fabrick.

ART. 50.

A brief sketch of Unguiology, extracted from the science of toenails. Translated from the German of Gasper Gall Lo'veytur. Γνωθι Σεαυτον. London, printed: Boston, reprinted, 1806.

CRANIOLOGY is certainly among those sciences, which have enlarged the boundaries of human knowledge, and added to the practical felicity of life. The author of the treatise before us has not merely followed the safe steps of his illustrious predecessor, and the immortal physiognomist of Switzerland, but has excellently and truly removed the indexes of the soul from the skull and the face to the toes. Lavater's science is liable to many objections, and Gall's is not free from marks of doubt and suspicion; but the testimony of poets and the incontrovertibleness of arguments, have given the ingenious system of unguiology a decided superiority over every rival. It would seem from the book, that the author is a German, and we indeed regret, that America cannot boast of such a grave, pleasant, and scientifick logician and scholar. He has given various reasons to show the importance of unguiology; he has exhibited its practical effects, and its scientifick purposes, and very triumphantly concludes that physiognomy and craniology are now entirely superseded. We are of the same opinion, and are obliged to to acknowledge, that those sublime arts must now rest in the grave with alchymy and palmistry. Lavater of Zurich, and Gall of Vienna are little better than mother Carey of Salem, and Moll Pitcher of Lynn. Unguiology has arisen majestically and authoritatively from the mouldering corpses of her sister sciences; we hail La'veytur as the noble founder of the most important of arts; we consider the publication of his book as a memorable era in literature; and we earnestly recommend its perusal to all descriptions and denominations of people, from the syllable-spelling boy, who takes firm hold of his intellectual pettitoes and turns heels over head, to the holy apostolick father of the Roman see, who graciously condescends to offer to the gentle kisses of his humble suppliants the dignified index of a mighty soul, his very clean and sublime great toe nail.

ART. 51.

The Modern Philosopher; or Terrible Tractoration! In four cantos. Most respectfully addressed to the royal college of physicians, London. By Christopher Caustic, M.D. A.S.S. *&c. &c. Second American edition, revised, corrected, and much enlarged by the author.* Philadelphia, from the Lorenzo press of E. Bronson. 8*vo. pp.*271.

Of the former editions of this work, both in England and America, much has been said, and the author may consider himself peculiarly fortunate in gaining so much praise from a work, ostensibly written in support of quackery. On this unthrifty subject, he has ingrafted some general and well directed satire, without which he could hardly have found so many readers.

This edition has gained another title, and a considerable *quantity of matter*. It differs from the former editions, principally by additional notes to the first canto, in which the new philosophy, and the old atheistical notions of Democritus, revived and embellished by the gorgeous verse of Darwin, are justly, and with some ability ridiculed. But we have long been weary of satires of this description, and they have become almost as stale as the doctrines they denounce. The waking dreams of St. Pierre and Darwin may give nutriment to weak intellects, or moon-struck imaginations, but we are not to believe them philosophers, because they would have tides made of polar ices, men from ourang outangs, and the universe by volcanick and cometary explosions.

Terrible Tractoration is composed of very perishable materials. A defence of Perkinism must have something more than the merits of its cause to ensure immortality. The author's extensive acquaintance with yankee phrases, and dexterity in the use of New-England vulgarisms have enabled him to frame a ludicrous structure of Hudibrastick rhyme, with materials as heterogeneous as the image of Nebuchadnezzar. But common thoughts, however amusing at first, by their ludicrous dress, will soon be found to want a better support than vulgarity of language.

"Pauper videri vult Cinna, et pauper est."

That this work has a considerable degree of humour, and some versification, with a felicity approaching to that of Hudibras, we do not deny; but for that novelty of association, inexhaustible flow of wit, and prodigal display of knowledge on every subject, that gives perpetual interest to the pages of Butler, we look through this book in vain.

In his account of himself, the author has joined the vulgar in his abuse of the verb *to graduate*, which is active, meaning "to confer a degree," not to receive one.

ART. 52.

The Understanding Reader; or knowledge before oratory; being a new selection of lessons suited to the understanding and the capacities of youth and designed for their improvement, I. In reading; II. In the definition of words; III. In spelling, particularly compound and derivative words. In a method wholly different from any thing of the kind ever before published. By Daniel Adams, M. B. *author of the Scholar's Arithmetick, Thorough Scholar, &c. "Our boys often read as parrots speak, knowing little or nothing of the meaning." Franklin.* Leominster, Adams & Wilder. 8vo. pp. 224.

The only article of importance in which this schoolbook differs from the multitude of similar selections is, the margin. Here a column of words, the least easily understood and spelt of any in the page, is selected and printed in italicks, the more forcibly to seize the attention of the pupil to their meaning and orthography. The effect may be good. The pieces are mostly well chosen, especially for schools in the country. This notice was due to the publick many months since; but the book was mislaid. Were we however to give it our warmest recommendations it ought not to sell; for its ink, paper, and type are all so miserable, that the Understanding Reader is the most illegible of books.

ART. 53.

A new Grammar of the French Tongue, originally compiled for the use of the American military academy. By a French gentleman. "Indocti discant, et ament meminisse periti." New-York, printed by G. & R. Waite for I. Riley & Co. 1804.

"Nothing new can be said in a grammar of the French language." Editions of these elementary books have become so numerous that *novelty* was not expected. There is nothing in this work for the American Military Academy, which can give it a claim to patronage, superiour to the grammars now in common use. The author has professedly attempted to introduce greater perspicuity and simplicity in the explanation and illustration of the principles already established. The quantity of exemplification, usually found in most works of this nature, he has rejected, as calculated only to perplex the student. He has avoided those "minute distinctions," which envelope essential *rules* in "trivial exceptions." In the general plan of *Grammar*, he has not differed from other compilers, and his new modification does not entitle him by any means to a rank above them in point of utility or *convenience*.

We have examined this work with some considerable attention, as one, dedicated to the use of our country, would naturally lead us to bestow. But we cannot give it the preference over many other grammars, and particularly above those by Chambaud and Wanostrocht, which have received the sanction of high literary authority in England, and have been used by the first teachers in this country, as the best introductions to a knowledge of the French language.

The typographical negligence of this small volume (which has two closely printed pages of "Errata") is almost unpardonable. It contains but 194 pages, and we do never recollect to have seen more errours in a work of so small a size.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR SEPTEMBER.

Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

Memoirs of Dr. Joseph Priestley, to the year 1795, written by himself; with a continuation to the time of his decease, by his son, Joseph Priestley; and observations on his writings, by Thomas Cooper, present judge of the 4th district of Pennsylvania, and the Rev. Wm. Christie. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 824. Northumberland, (Penn.) John Binns.

Plain Discourses on the Chemical Laws of Matter. Containing a general view of the principles and improvements of the science of Chemistry; with a particular detail of those parts which are common and connected with domestick affairs. Addressed to the citizens of America. By Thomas Ewell, M. D. late of Virginia. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 500, with plates. Price $3 in extra boards. New-York, Brisban & Brannan, 186 Pearl-street.

No. III. of The Christian Monitor, a religious periodical work; containing eight discourses on the Means of Religion. 12mo. fine wove paper, pp. 200. Price in blue boards 30 cents. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

An Exposition of the Criminal Laws of the Territory of Orleans; the practice of the courts of criminal jurisdiction, the duties of their officers, with a collection of forms for the use of magistrates and others. Published in pursuance of an act of the legislature of the territory. In French and English. By Lewis Kerr, Esq. New Orleans, Bradford & Anderson.

The Schoolmaster's Assistant: being a compendium of Arithmetick, both Practical and Theoretical—in five parts. The whole being delivered in the most familiar way of question and answer, recommended by several eminent mathematicians, accomptants and schoolmasters, as necessary to be used in schools by all teachers who would have their scholars thoroughly understand, and make quick progress in Arithmetick. By Thomas Dilworth, author of the New Guide to the English Tongue, Book-Keeper's Assistant, &c. With additions and alterations, adapted to the use of the citizens of the United States. New-York, George Jansen.

The Columbian Orthographer; or, First Book for Children. In which the words are methodically arranged, rationally divided into syllables, and accurately accented according to the best authorities. For the use of schools. By James Pike. 12mo. pp. 169. Price 20 cents. Portland, Daniel Johnson.

The American Ready Reckoner, and trader's infallible guide, in dollars and cents; with a variety of useful tables. Small 12mo. pp. 175. 50 cents, bound. Baltimore, Warner, & Hanna.

The Advantages of God's Presence with his People in an Expedition against their Enemies: A sermon preached at Newbury, May 22, 1755, at the desire and in the audience of Col. Moses Titcomb, and many others enlisted under him, and going with him in an expedition against the French. By John Lowell, A. M. pastor of a church in Newbury. Newburyport, E. W. Allen.

The Messiah's Reign, a sermon preached on the 4th of July, before the Washington Society, and published at their request. By James Muir, D. D. pastor of the Presbyterian church at Alexandria. Alexandria, S. Snowden.

A sermon preached in Sharon, Vermont, March 12, 1806, at the ordination of the Rev. Samuel Bascom. By the Rev. Tilton Eastman, pastor of the Congregational church in Randolph, Vt. Hanover, N. H. Moses Davis.

The Commonwealth's Man, in a series of letters, addressed to the citizens of New York. By James Smith, M.D. New-York, A. Forman.

An Oration, pronounced at Lancaster, July 4, 1806, in commemoration of the anniversary of American Independence. By Samuel Brazer, junior. Pr. 17 cts. Worcester, Sam'l Cotting.

An Oration, delivered at the meetinghouse in Bennington, Vermont, on the 4th of July, 1806; by O. C. Merrill. 8vo. pp. 56. 25 cts. Bennington, Smead.

An Oration, delivered by Peter H. Weſtover, Esq. on the 4th of July, 1806, in the New Dutch Church, New York. 8vo. Office of the Amer. Citizen.

'Rory Roasted, a serio-comical and political Drama, (in 5 acts,) the two first acts wanting, yet still complete, as it was lately performed on the theatre of Philadelphia, (without any success) as the commencement of the 3d act declares, owing to the infamous acting of a bad fellow, who performed the character of 'Rory. Collected by the publick's humble servant, Pill Garlick, Esq. Together with Pill Garlick, esq.'s address, notes, &c. 37 cents. Philadelphia, Office of the Freeman's Journal.

NEW EDITIONS.

Vol. I. of The Family Expositor, or a paraphrase and version of the New-Testament; with critical notes, and a practical improvement of each section containing the history of our Lord Jesus Christ, as recorded by the four evangelists; disposed in the order of an harmony. By Philip Doddridge, D. D. from the 8th London edition. To which is prefixed, a life of the author, by Andrew Kippis. 8vo. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

Sacred Classicks, containing the following works: 1. Hervey's Meditations. 2. Evidences of the Christian religion, by the right Hon. Joseph Addison. To which are added, Discourses against atheism and infidelity, with a preface; containing the sentiments of Mr. Boyle, Mr. Locke, and Sir Isaac Newton, concerning the gospel revelation. 3. The death of Abel, in 5 books, translated from the German of Mr. Gesner, by Mrs. Colver. To which is prefixed, The life of the author. 4. Devout Exercises of the Heart, in meditation and soliloquy, prayer and praise—by the late pious and ingenious Mrs. Elizabeth Rowe, revised and published at her request, by J. Watts, D. D.—Friendship in Death, in letters from the dead to the living; to which are added, Letters, moral and entertaining, in prose and verse, by Mrs. Elizabeth Rowe.—Reflections on Death, by Wm. Dodd, LL.D. with the life of the author. The Centaur, not fabulous, in six letters to a friend, on the life in vogue; by Dr. Young: with the life of the author. The Pilgrim's Progress. Blackmore on Creation.—The above works are in imitation of Cooke's edition of the Sacred Classicks, embellished with elegant engravings—Price $1 per volume, neatly bound. New-York, J. & T. Ronalds.

The Wife; interspersed with a variety of anecdote and observations, and containing advice and directions for all conditions of the marriage state. 1st American edition. 12mo. pp. 220. 75 cents in boards. Boston, Newell.

The 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th Nos. of Madoc, a poem, by Robert Southey. 8vo. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

Home, a poem. pp. 144. foolscap 8vo. Price 75 cents in extra boards to subscribers. Boston, Sam'l H. Parker.

Davideis: the life of David, king of Israel. A sacred poem, in 5 books. By Thomas Elwood. 12mo. pp. 160. Philadelphia, Joseph Crukshank.

Account of the Life and Religious Labours of Samuel Neale. Philadelphia, James P. Parke.

A Military Catechism; with a method to form company, and an explanation of the exercise; with directions for the officers and soldiers; to which is added, some explanation and improvement of the formation and exercise of a regiment. By Joseph Lord, brigade major and inspector, Columbia County, New-York. A new edition, with the addition of one third more useful matter. Hudson.

IN THE PRESS.

The 3d American edition of The Secret History of the Court and Cabinet of St. Cloud. This highly interesting and entertaining work has run through two editions of 1500 copies each, in the short period of ten weeks. Philadelphia, J. Watts, for Brisban & Brannan and Riley & Co. New-York.

Looke on the Human Understanding. 12mo. 3 vols. Boston, John West.

The Baptism of Believers only, and the particular Communion of the Baptist Churches, explained and vindicated. In three parts. The first—published originally in 1789; the second, in 1794; the third, an appendix, containing additional observations and arguments, with strictures on several late publications. By Thomas Baldwin. Boston, Manning & Loring.

Some of the false arguments, mistakes, and errours of the Rev. Samuel Austin, examined for the benefit of the publick. By Daniel Merrill. Boston, Manning & Loring.

The Doctrine of the Law and Grace unfolded. Being a discourse, shewing the different natures of the law and gospel; and the very dissimilar states of those who are under the law, and those who are under grace, or interested in Jesus Christ. By John Bunyan. Boston, Manning & Loring.

Charnock's Life of Lord Nelson. 8vo. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language in miniature. Boston. William Andrews.

The Death of legal Hope the Life of evangelical Obedience. By Abraham Booth. Boston, Manning & Loring.

Watts' Psalms and Hymns, with the flats and sharps affixed, for the convenience of choristers. Boston, Manning & Loring.

The second edition of the Psalmodist's Assistant: containing an original composition of psalm and hymn tunes; together with a number of favourite pieces from different authors. To which is prefixed, an introduction to the grounds of musick. By Abijah Forbush. Boston, Manning & Loring.

A Collection of Hymns on Baptism, suitable to be sung at the administration of that ordinance in the apostolick mode: with doctrinal and experimental hymns, suited to occasional meetings for social worship; designed to establish in the heart those gospel truths, which are consonant to the experience of a work of the Holy Spirit in all true believers. Boston, Manning & Loring.

PROPOSED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

The Works of William Paley, D. D. archdeacon of Carlisle. With a portrait and life of the author. 4 vols. 8vo. pp. 500 each, on superfine wove paper. Price $2 per volume in boards, or 2,25 bound. Boston, William Andrews.

Byrom's System of Stenography; or universal standard of short-hand writing, with considerable alterations and improvements. Containing plain and comprehensive rules, systematically arranged; with explanatory notes, &c. By an English Gentleman. 1 small quarto volume, price to subscribers $1,25 in boards. Windsor, Vermont, H. H. Cunningham.

Ferguson's Lectures on select subjects in Mechanicks, Hydrostaticks, Hydraulicks, Pneumaticks, Opticks, Geography, Astronomy, and Dialing. A new edition, corrected and enlarged. With notes and an appendix, adapted to the present state of the arts and sciences. By David Brewster, A.M. Revised, and corrected, by Robert Patterson, Professor of Mathematicks, and Teacher of Natural Philosophy, in the University of Pennsylvania. In 3 vols. two in octavo of letter press, and one quarto volume containing 48 engravings. Price to subscribers $6. Philadelphia, Mathew Carey, and Etheridge & Bliss, Boston.

Letters to a Young Lady, in which the duties and character of women are considered, chiefly with a reference to prevailing opinions. By Mrs. West, author of Letters to a Young Man. 1 volume octavo, pp. 500. Price $2,50 boards; 2,75 bound. Troy, Obadiah Penniman & Co. and Isaac Riley & Co. New-York.

A second edition of The Harmonia Americana, with corrections and additions. By S. Holyoke. pp. 200. Pr. to subscribers $1,50.

A Collection of Sacred Musick, expressly calculated for the use of the Protestant Episcopal Church; consisting of Chants for the different services, Anthems and Hymns for particular occasions, and plain psalmody, from the most celebrated authors ancient and modern, arranged in full harmony, for the use of Choirs; with the bases figured and the proper accompaniments annexed in small notes; for the Organ or Piano-Forte. By John Cole. The work will be handsomely engraved, and contain about 60 folio pages, an elegant vignette title-page, and a list of subscribers. Pr. $4. Philadelphia, J. Watts.

INTELLIGENCE.

Our most fervent wishes for a liberal patronage of the publication, of which the following is a prospectus, induces us to give it an early insertion in the Anthology.

"Proposals by John Watts, of Philadelphia, for publishing by subscription, in medium octavo, Select Speeches, forensick and parliamentary, with illustrative remarks, by N. Chapman, M.D.

> Pietatem gravem ac meritis si forte virum quem
> Conspexere, silent; arrectisque auribus adstant;
> Iste regit dictis animos et pectora mulcet.—Virg.

The design of the work, as the title imports, is to draw from the exchequer of modern eloquence the most distinguished speeches, and to publish them *collectively*. These splendid productions, to many of which "Demosthenes would have listened with *delight*, and Cicero with *envy*," are permitted, by a strange insensibility to their value, to be scattered, with the refuse of literature, in the perishable shape of a pamphlet, or to be preserved imperfectly in the rapid synopses of the Chronicles of the day. It is to be regretted that, in consequence of this neglect, some of the finest displays of modern elocution are already irretrievably lost, and that the rest must inevitably be swept away by the current of time, if an effort be not fostered to give them a more permanent form.

The diligent researches of the Editor, though sometimes disappointed, have been, on the whole, rewarded with a success very disproportioned to the moderate expectations with which he went to the task.

He has found, concealed in the cabinets of the curious, and in the hoards of "literary misers," a sufficient number of the "brightest gems," to authorise him to exchange the toils of gleaning for the perplexity of selection.

He proposes to make indisputable evidence of the genuineness of every speech the invariable criterion of his choice, and will admit no one into the work which has not distinct claims from importance of matter and brilliancy of diction.

Without hazarding a decision of his own, on the intricate question of the respective excellence of ancient and modern eloquence, he confidently trusts that *his compilation* will not be thought to weaken the opinion that, were a collection of the best specimens of the latter to be formed, it might fearlessly challenge a comparison with the celebrated exhibitions of Grecian and Roman oratory.

Of the pretensions of the work to publick favour the Editor conceives little need be said.

I. It is an attempt, and the only one, to perpetuate Modern Eloquence.

What direct memorial, says a late writer, would remote posterity have received, even of the existence of the talent, were not a few of Mr. Burke's Orations incorporated with his works? But, gorgeous as is certainly the rhetorick of Edmund Burke, will his speeches alone convey an adequate representation of the extent, variety, and richness of the eloquence of the age in which he lived?

II. It will present at one view to the Lawyer and Statesman, those learned and lucid discussions of politicks and jurisprudence, which are eminently subsidiary to his investigations, and which, as now dispersed, are always difficult of access, and frequently not to be procured at any price.

III. It will afford a correct model for the study of Oratory.

The calm, temperate, argumentative manner of the moderns differs too widely from the bold, vehement, figurative style of the ancient orations, to render them, notwithstanding their various beauties, a standard altogether proper for emulation.

A speaker, who should at this time adventurously imitate the impetuous strains, or the lofty flights, which mark the classick elocution—who should dare to pour "the torrent, or spread the splendid conflagration," would probably excite not more surprise, or provoke greater merriment, by appearing before his audience enrobed in the grotesque costume of antiquity.

Whatever tends to improve or to widen the dominion of speech cannot be an object of indifference in a commonwealth.

Eloquence has always been admired and studied by every free people. It engages particularly their attention, because it opens to them the widest avenue to distinction. Compared to it, the influence of the other attributes, which elevate to rank, or confer authority, is feeble and insignificant. In Greece and Rome it rose, by cultivation, to the loftiest pitch of refinement, and the history of those states confirms, by innumerable instances, the truth, "that Eloquence is Power."

But no-where has a condition of things prevailed, holding out stronger incitements to its acquirement, or more auspicious opportunities for its profitable exertion, than in the United States. There are, indeed, in the peculiar construction of our political institutions, advantages to the orator, which did not belong even to the ancient democracies. The complex fabrick of our federative system has multiplied, beyond the example of any government, legislative assemblies and judiciary establishments: each of which is not only a school to discipline eloquence, but also a field that yields the abundant harvest of its honours and emoluments.

With us an additional motive exists, to stimulate generous ambition to the culture of oratory. The nation has a character to receive. We can scarcely hope to create, and emblazon one with the glitter of, military deeds. The natural felicities of our situation will forbid, perhaps for a considerable period, our becoming warlike. Reputation from the improvements of literature, or science, or the arts, is equally denied to us. Centuries must elapse before we can arrive at this enviable eminence. The adolescence of a people is not the season which produces such improvements. They are the offspring of a much riper age.

Hitherto we are chiefly known by a hardy spirit of commercial enterprise, and by the uncommon possession of the faculty of publick speaking, which are the probable germinations of our future character. Into these directions the genius of the country is pressed by causes not readily to be controled. Eloquence seems to flourish well among us. Let us therefore encourage its growth till it becomes the distinguishing feature of the American people. Let us, since we are excluded from many of the means which advance the glory of a nation, endeavour to exalt our fame by excelling in one of the noblest qualities of our nature.

Like a polished republick of antiquity, we will be content to be characterized by our commerce and our oratory. The winds which waft the redundant products of our industry to the remotest regions may also bear our renown as the most eloquent people of the earth.

Conditions.—I. The work will be comprised in 3 or 4 vols. 8vo. II. It will be elegantly printed on fine paper, and with a type bold and distinct. III. The price to subscribers will be two dollars and fifty cents, each volume. To non-subscribers, three dollars. IV. It is contemplated to put the work to press on the first of November.

Mr. Field of this town has published an engraving of Gen. Hamilton from a portrait painted by Trumbull.

Dr. Ramsay, of South Carolina, author of the history of the American revolution, is writing a life of Washington.

We learn that I. Riley & Co. of New-York, have now in press, which they will shortly publish, the translation of a new & very interesting work, which first appeared in Paris, only about two months since. This work is entitled, "A Voyage to the Eastern Part of Terra Firma, or the Spanish Main, in South America, during the years of 1801, 1802, 1803, and 1804: containing a description of the Commandery or District of Caraccas, composed of the Provinces of Venezuela, Maracaibo, Varinas, Spanish Guiana, Cumana, and the Island of Margaretta—with particulars relative to the Discovery, Conquest, Topography, Legislation, Commerce, Finances, Inhabitants and Productions of those Provinces; with a view of the manners and customs of the Spaniards, and of the Indians both civilized and uncivilized, by F. Depons, late Agent of the French Government at Caraccas." This work which, from our daily increasing commerce and communication with the Spanish Colonies, with that of Caraccas, more particularly, would at any time attract in a high degree, the curiosity of the American Publick must, we presume, from *recent occurrences*, be, at this moment, peculiarly interesting. We feel desirous to ascertain, from the report of an acute and well qualified observer who has long resided on the spot, the character and other particulars relative to a people with whom our intercourse is already an object of great mercantile importance, and of whom we know at present little more from correct information than we do of the inhabitants of Japan.

Rural Economy.—We are happy to announce that I. Riley & Co. have just published in 1 vol. 8vo. a very valuable work upon a method of building, much employed in Italy and France, known by the name of Pisè, the materials of which are earth, which promises to be of great utility in the country, more particularly as applied to farm houses, cottages and out buildings. It is the production of S. W. Johnson, Esq. of Brunswick, New Jersey, a gentleman who has long devoted his attention to improvements in husbandry and rural economy. This mode of building has received the sanction of the Board of agriculture in Great Britain by whom it is highly recommended to the government both for its cheapness, healthiness, and security from fire. The author who appears to have paid all that attention to the subject which its importance demands, has suggested some very material improvements upon the plan recommended by the Board of agriculture, together with such alterations as the difference of climate in this country may require. This publication contains also some general instructions relative to the site and arrangement of buildings appertaining to the farm, strictures on the cultivation of the vine, and an essay on the manner of making Turnpike Roads, with the advantages arising from them, accompanied with scales of elevation and depression for convex and concave roads, and a number of plates explanatory of the different subjects.

From the cursory examination which we have been able to bestow upon this work, we hesitate not to recommend it to the publick as one that will probably prove of the greatest utility particularly to the agricultural interest.—*Herald.*

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,

From Aug. 20 *to Sept.* 20.

ON the 22d of August, the spell, which seemed to have bound the heavens, was broken; the rain fell in torrents, and since that time the quantity which has fallen is almost without parallel, in the same space of time. The winds have been principally from the N.E. and S.W. quarters. It is well to remark, that the furious storm from the north-east, which committed such havock among the shipping along the whole coast of the United States, was first felt in the southern latitudes. In Carolina, it commenced on the 21st of August. Along the coast of the middle states, it raged on the 22d and 23d. In Boston, it was not noticed till the 24th, although there was some rain on the day previous. This interesting fact confirms an observation, respecting the storms of this country, first made by Franklin, and after him by Williams and Volney. Phenomena of this nature should be carefully noted, in order to assist in explaining the peculiarities of the climate of the United States. The weather has been cooler than common during great part of the month.

The cholera of children has probably been the most common disease. It has not been so frequent nor so fatal, as it usually is at this season. Nearly the same remark may be applied to the common disease of adults, the autumnal fever. This has generally been of a mild character, and rarely fatal.

There have not been many cases of cow-pock during the past month.

Editors' Notes.

IN our preſent number we have the pleaſure of preſenting for the peruſal of our patrons the Poem of Mr. Whitwell, which afforded ſo much delight to thoſe who heard it and conferred honour on the Society of which he is a member. The poem abounds with beautiful verſes and pungent ſatire. We congratulate the author that, amid the buſtle of the bar and the jargon of clients, he can ſweetly tune the lyre; and that, after repeating the diſſonant accents of Norman-French and Leonine Latin, he can ſing harmonious ſtrains. We hope the author will occaſionally decorate our columns with wild flowers from the banks of Kennebeck, and, in the words of Shenſtone, we entreat him,

> " Though form'd for courts, vouchſafe to rove
> Inglorious through the ſhepherd's grove,
> And ope the baſhful ſprings."

We regret that, in the hurry of copying, ſome errours were committed, which we requeſt our readers to correct. In the 80th line read,

> " Lent to Saturnia to beguile her Jove."

In the 219th line read,

> " Who ſpread Deluſion like a miſt around."

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

OCTOBER, 1806.

For the Anthology.

A DISQUISITION UPON THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE ANCIENTS.

PRONOUNCED BEFORE THE SOCIETY OF Φ B K, AT THEIR ANNIVERSARY MEETING IN CAMBRIDGE, 28TH AUGUST, 1806.

By Thomas Boylston Adams.

This anniversary festival again invites the Brethren of the Φ B K to renew their vows of friendship and fraternity; to revive the memory of former intimacies, and consecrate to futurity habits of affection more recently begun.

Greetings of cordiality await the attending members of our social institution, mingled with regret for those unavoidably absent.

We offer no incense to propitiate, and immolate no victim to appease *heathen* Divinities. In our Fasti this day is sacred to *Candour* and *Philanthropy*. Our only sacrifice is, of the worst to the best feelings of the heart; and the fragments gathered at our feast, which custom enjoins it as a duty to carry hence, are, the grateful remembrance of a mental repast, seasoned with the salt of *Charity*.

Thus, in the principles of your Association, is found an excuse for the imperfections of the speaker, who, yielding to a sense of duty and your partial suffrage, rather than the consciousness of his insufficiency, for the task he has this day assumed, anticipates only gratuitous applause for well-meant endeavours.

By the mystery of our calling, my brethren, we are naturally attracted toward the fountains of Science, and to ramble without reserve in the pleasant fields of Philosophy.

Philosophy! which ages of superstition idolized as a Divinity, and which, though stripped of attributes and attractions, worthy the homage, and challenging those false trappings, still retains the love and admiration of man in every age. The prolifick parent of the social virtues and moral graces, it has been usual to personify Philosophy as a female, and in that character has she been honoured with "the glorious epithets of the *Mistress of Manners*, the *Directress of Life*, the *Inventress of Laws and Culture*, the *Guide to Virtue and Happiness*." If these be her appropriate titles, no wonder that Socrates, her great high priest, "who diverted the attention of his followers from abstruse speculations concerning the material world to the practice of virtue and the uniform observance of the duties of life," is represented by Cicero as having brought philosophy down from heaven. Thus descended, Pythagoras had already given her " a name, whereby she might be known among men," having defined those to be philosophers, " who made light of all other pursuits, and assiduously applied themselves to the study of nature, and the search after wisdom."

The history of philosophy and that of letters are so intimately blended, that it is impossible to distinguish between those causes, which have retarded the progress of the one, without involving the fate of the other. One event, indeed, seems to have happened to them both. Like the *Benefactors* of mankind, in all ages they have shared largely of *ingratitude* ; by turns the sport of wantonness and the victims of savage cruelty ; sometimes in perils, like St. Paul, from false brethren, and sometimes suffocated by the smoke or reduced to cinders by the flames, which casualty or design have enkindled in the midst of their dwelling places.

The errours of the human mind deserve consideration, not on their own account, but because we may use them as beacons to admonish us of danger, and as they point out the shoals, upon which others have made shipwreck.

Shall we think with Hume* and Priestley,† who concur in sentiment that " the devastations of barbarians and the destruction of records, with other monuments of antiquity, have been rather favourable, than adverse to the arts and sciences, by breaking the progress of authority" ? Then, indeed, may consolation spring from some events, which other eyes have viewed, and history records, as the consummation of calamity. The soldiers of Julius Cæsar and the Saracen caliph Omar, in league with the elements, tried by this test, were the first philanthropists. The progress of authority could not have been more effectually checked, than by the burning of those almost innumerable volumes, which the wealth of the Egyptian Ptolemies had amassed in the Alexandrian libraries. " An amazing repository of ancient science," the annihilation of which the accomplished author of the Observer‡ deplores, as the loss of the most valuable treasure upon earth.

" It was buried in ashes," says this animated writer, " by the well-known quibbling edict of a barbarous fanatick." " If, said the em-
" perour, these volumes contain
" doctrines conformable to the Ko-
" ran, then is the Koran alone suf-
" ficient, without these volumes ;
" but if what they teach be repug-
" nant to God's book, then is it
" fitting they were destroyed."

" Thus, with false reason for their judge, and false religion for their executioner, perished an innumerable company of Poets, Philosophers, and Historians, with almost every thing elegant in Art and edifying in Science, which the most illuminated people on earth had, in the luxuriance of their genius, produced. In vain did the philosopher John, (surnamed the Grammarian) intercede to save them. Universal condemnation to the flames was the sentence, ignorance denounced against these literary martyrs. The flow of wit, the flights of fancy, and the labours of learning, alike contributed to feed the fires of those baths, in

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* Hume's Essays.

† Priestley. Lec. Gen. Policy.

‡ Cumberland's Observer, No. 19.

which the savage conquerors recreated themselves after the toils of the siege."

"Need we inquire, when art and science were extinct, if darkness overspread the nations? It is a period too melancholy to reflect upon and too vacant to record. History passes over it, as over the chart of an ocean without a shore, with this cutting recollection accompanying it, that in this ocean are buried many of the brightest monuments of ancient genius."

The furious zeal of this Mahometan prince in favour of his religion, which thus laid science in ruins, has unhappily found a parallel in the annals of the Christian Church. At a period, when philosophy had incurred disgrace, by the perverseness and treachery of some unworthy professors, a Roman emperour waged war against the whole race of philosophers. Instigated by an inveterate aversion to those, who still practised pagan idolatry, Justinian shut up the schools, which still remained at Athens, and deprived the teachers of their revenues; and a Roman pontiff, inflamed by a similar hatred, under the pretext of confining the attention of the clergy to the sacred scriptures, at another time, consigned to the flames the valuable collections of books, formed by the Roman emperours.

That learning should have survived these accumulated disasters is scarcely credible. As an epoch in the history of Philosophy, may it not be ranked with the general deluge of the world? And as the genealogy of princes, after the flood, could be traced no higher than the head of a single family, by whom the world was renewed, so, for a genealogy of letters, are we not compelled to look up to the solitary and scattered remnants, which escaped these general conflagrations? *These*, together with *the Scriptures of Truth*, have rebuilt and repeopled the desolate places of wisdom; and, if we listen to the self complacency of the present age, the light of Science now shines with brighter lustre and more expanded rays, than at any former period. As one proof, among many, of the prevalence of this opinion, an appeal to French authority may not be deemed unpardonable. A distinguished member of the French Academy,* contrasting the merits of ancient and modern researches into the arcana of nature, indulges in the following strain.—"No sooner had the first Philosophers looked about them, than they believed at once that they knew every thing. Their first impressions seem to have been—we see all things, and we are at no loss to account for the cause of all things. As in a dream, they beheld the universe rising to view; they dreamt of the principles, the properties, and the origin of things, and they never awoke from their slumbers."

"Thus the ancients, in other words, those who deserve precedence in ignorance, believed themselves wise. Unfortunately, because they believed it themselves, nobody else doubted it. "Professing themselves to be wise they became fools;" but this fact was not discovered for some ages. Seniority was, in their estimation, the best title to knowledge, and supplied all scientifick deficiences. The Egyptians are a law to the Greeks, the Greeks to the Romans; and in

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* M. L'Abbé Condillac. Cours d'Etudes. Tom. 6.

our day both Greeks and Romans are a law to us."

"Empires are subverted, and nations are buried under their ruins, but opinions endure; they survive all ages, and never grow old. An ostensible change in modes of thinking is often less a proof of novelty, than of an old fashion in disguise."

"Formerly philosophers undertook to explain every thing, without previous experiment; raising doubts, without knowing whether they were susceptible of solution; flattering themselves with hopes of new discoveries, without possessing the means of investigation, and even when they knew not what they sought. Alone inquisitive respecting things above their reach or comprehension, they associated vague ideas, obscure or fallacious. They framed hypotheses, and because they took no note of them, they were constantly reproducing the same opinions in a new shape; so that nobody need be surprised at the information, that all the opinions of the ancient philosophers are comprized in a small compass of ideas, wherein they are confounded with each other. No one has ever adventured beyond it, and, as to a common centre, all are attracted thither by ignorance, their guide."

"True philosophy is but of yesterday, and it is because experiment has lent her aid to genius, that the sphere of knowledge is enlarged. Whatever may be the extent of this sphere, it is nevertheless bounded, and we cannot overleap its limits. Being "children of darkness rather than light," we are perpetually seeking that port, whence we departed on the voyage of discovery. But, if many things are impenetrably hid from our view, it is, at least, in our power to avoid many errours. Let us habituate ourselves to passing judgment upon things, of which we can attain true knowledge—let us be ignorant of the rest, and without fear avow it."

In the same spirit, though more highly seasoned, is the opinion which the Baron Montesquieu* has left behind him, of the small advances, made by the ancients, in several branches of learning.

At the close of a preface to one of his sallies of levity (called the Temple of Gnidus) he remarks, that, "if *grave people* should desire of him a less frivolous work, he is ready to satisfy the demand; having laboured *thirty years* upon a book of *twelve pages*, which will contain all our knowledge of *metaphysicks*, *politicks*, and *morals*, and every thing which the greatest authors *have forgotten*, in the volumes they have written upon those respective sciences."

The term philosophy admits and has received a very large interpretation. "At some periods its signification has been extended so far, as to include, not only all speculative science, but also skill in municipal law; the knowledge of medicine; the art of criticism and the whole circle of polite literature. The Christian religion was called sacred philosophy, and ecclesiastical doctors and monks were styled philosophers."

"The history of philosophy, according to Dr. Enfield,† is the history of the human understanding; clearly shewing the extent of its capacity, the causes of its perversion, and the means, by which it may be recalled from its unprofitable wanderings, and successfully employed in subserviency to the happiness of mankind."

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* Le Temple de Gnide, par le Baron Montesquieu.

† Enfield's History of Philosophy.

That spirit of inquiry, which we derive from nature, and which commonly discovers itself with the first dawning of the human intellect, may be aptly denominated *the love of wisdom.* In this sense the prattling infant is as much a philosopher, as the hoary-headed sage. Curiosity, which, instead of being satiated, grows hungry by indulgence, first busies itself about the *names* of natural bodies; next, their *peculiar properties* and *appropriate uses*; then, the *causes* of their *existence.* Such is the philosophy of nature; and moral philosophy, necessarily, pursues the same track in her investigation of the operations of mind; for valuable or useful discoveries, both depend upon a previous knowledge of fact, obtained by careful experiment and critical observation.

While the study of moral philosophy has confessedly fallen into neglect, the institutions of modern times are chiefly designed to facilitate the acquisition of natural knowledge; but, for lessons of morality, we have the inestimable privilege of resorting to the temples of our God. It is to be feared, that the rage of innovation, aided by an artificial aversion and an unnatural distaste for ancient wisdom, which infidelity has lately wrought up to a pitch of extravagance, has already produced alarming consequences to society. That the fetters of superstition, rivetted by ancient authority, have scarcely less retarded the progress of improvement, than the mournful desolations of war, is a favourite doctrine of the times; and it is by no means uncommon to hear a reverence for the ancients derided, as a tyrannical usurpation over human reason. In order to dethrone this despot, and restore the understanding to its natural freedom, the discipline of the schools must be utterly abolished, and the props of authority must be left to moulder away, by long interruptions in the progress of learning; youth must no longer be harassed by the study of heathen writers, vulgarly called Classicks, because of the danger of corrupting their morals; and, to finish the climax, the holy bible, instead of a code of divine inspiration, the refuge of mortals on earth and their only guide to heaven, has lately been discovered to be only a compilation of *monkish impostors.*

The obstacles to the attainment of knowledge, one would think, were already sufficiently numerous, without the auxiliary aid of systematick degradation; for the labourers in the vineyard of wisdom, and the suitors in the courts of the Muses, have been few, in all ages, and their reward has more frequently been stripes, than blessings, from their cotemporaries; but the honour of laying the foundation for an *institute of ignorance* exclusively belongs to the *age of reason.*

Within a century past scepticism has aimed many open and many insidious blows at the purest system of morals that ever blessed mankind, by studied attempts to bring in question its divine origin. What aggravates the iniquity of these pernicious labours is, the unwelcome recollection, that they have been, for the most part, achieved by men of superiour scientifick attainments, whose exercises of intellect, in every other branch of learning, reflect lustre upon letters. Pitiful employment! shameful perversion of mental endowments! To particularize individuals, who have lent their aid to undermine the fabrick of Christian faith, becomes not this occasion. How largely this philosophy has contributed to produce those revolutions of states and empires, of which the scene is principally laid in Europe, is an inquiry, which, by its interest, might reward the patient research of scholars and statesmen.

It is not, in fact, nor ought it to be mentioned as any disparagement of the ancient moralists, that their writings breathe not the pure ethereal precepts of the Christian doctrines. With devotional fervour many of them sought for the knowledge of truths, which by the help of revelation are happily familiarized to us; but it did not comport with the views of God to man, that discoveries of his divine attributes should result from the most unwearied exercise of unassisted reason. Yet, by the systems of morals which were taught in the schools of the first masters of philosophy, the condition of the human race was raised from debasement; the violence of the passions received a salutary check; and the prevalence of corruption and impiety became more rare among mankind. Had the lives and the doctrines of their adherents been coincident with the original tenets of the first teachers, Philosophy had never "given occasion for her enemies to blaspheme." She might not have been doomed to ring all the changes of the Metempsichosis of vice and impurity. Such a barometer, as has been graduated for the philosophy of Greece, had never been applied to the purpose of noting the fluctuations in the state of the moral atmosphere, even among the heathen.

It could not with truth have been said of the philosophy, which Plato and Aristotle admired, that it became "*impious* under Diagoras; *vicious* under Epicurus; *hypocritical* under Zeno; *impudent* under Diogenes; *covetous* under Demochares; *voluptuous* under Metrodorus; *fantastical* under Crates; *scurrilous* under Menippus; *licentious* under Pyrrho; and *quarrelsome* under Cleanthes."*

It is nevertheless sufficiently attested, that the Ionick and Italick schools, at the head of which were Thales and Pythagoras, split into numerous sects, as various in their doctrines, as in their modes of teaching. Each had its favourite hypothesis, while all were confessedly occupied in the search after happiness, or the greatest good.

Some place the bliss in action, some in ease,
Those call it pleasure, and contentment these;
Some, sunk to beasts, find pleasure end in pain,
Some, swell'd to Gods, confess ev'n virtue vain;
Or, indolent, to each extreme they fall,
To trust in every thing, or doubt of all.†

As the natural propensities of men dictated, and as their dispositions inclined, they were led to embrace opposite schemes for the attainment of a common end; and a supposed affinity between the different temperaments of men and the sects themselves has been assigned as the impelling motive to a choice of masters. "Nothing," says De Pauw, "being more natural, than that those, who were born with great force of mind and strong nerves, should discover a predilection for stoicism, while mortals, endowed by nature with more delicacy of fibres, fled for refuge to the myrtles of Epicurus. People, whose temper partook of no extreme, were inclined for the Lyceum, or the Academy; such as possessed solidity of understand-

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* Encyclopædia. Tit. Philosophy.

† Pope. Essay on Man.

ing ranged themselves with Aristotle; and those who had only genius, or even pretensions to that endowment, went to augment the crowd of Platonists."

It is assumed, as an historical fact, that the maxims of moral philosophy taught in the schools of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, very powerfully contributed to discipline the minds of men for the reception of the sublimer doctrines of Christianity; though, it is no less certain, that the active jealousy of many, styling themselves disciples of Plato, had an influence in retarding the establishment of the Christian Religion. Their hostility, so well attested, is ascribed with some plausibility to their settled veneration for the head of their sect, and an apprehension, that the new system would speedily eradicate their favourite philosophy, which, of all others, in the opinion of a modern enthusiast, "discovers the greatest conformity with Revelation." Whether this honour be ascribed to the sentiments of Plato or of Socrates, is perhaps not very material; but, as the former was a disciple of the latter, the praise of conformity belongs rather to the master, than the scholar.

The united testimony of ancient and modern writers gives rank to Socrates, as the most extraordinary person, that ever appeared in the heathen world; and, in our day, we have seen a philosophical parallel, between the character of *Socrates* and *Jesus of Nazareth*, produce an interesting controversy, between two learned Theologians.‡

To combat vulgar errours; to stem the torrent of popular prejudice; and to meliorate the condition of men in despite of themselves, is of all employments the most thankless; and it is a solemn truth, that the best and richest gifts of providence, in the persons and characters of eminent men, have been slighted, if not rejected with loathing, by those for whom the blessing was designed. Jerusalem stoned and killed her prophets. Athens poisoned her Socrates. Rome murdered her Cicero. The Jews—But I forbear further to trespass on holy ground. The fate of Socrates is most connected with my subject. Though not untarnished with suspicion, his life and character are for the most part represented in the most amiable light. His cotemporaries shrink from a comparison, because the example he gave is reproachful of their dissoluteness of manners.

Athens was infested with a swarm of false pretenders to wisdom, denominated Sophists, whose trade was disputation and the sum of whose merit is comprised in a short sentence...they had the art "to make the worse appear the better reason." From this vermin it was the ambition of Socrates to rid his country. Their hypocrisy, not surpassed by that of the scribes and pharisees, he knew and despised; their ignorance he knew, and exposed it. While they pretended to such acquisitions of knowledge, and such a knack of imparting it to others, that, as a facetious Frenchman professed to teach the art of painting, so they could teach the art of wisdom, in three hour's time, Socrates, who was wiser than them all, professed to know but this, *that he knew nothing*. At an advanced period of his life, the rancour of those enemies, whom all his life had exasperated, enkindled the resent-

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‡ Priestley and Linn's controversy.

ment of his countrymen, by impeaching him of the heinous sin of "endeavouring to bring wisdom and things together, and make truth consist with sober sense." That he corrupted the youth, and refused homage to the gods of his country, were other articles in the charges preferred against Socrates to the Athenian senate. The stage had been employed as an instrument, by the force of ridicule, to destroy the influence of his captivating manners and seducing opinions, and the ribaldry of Aristophanes occasionally bespattered the transparent drapery of the Socratick portrait of Divinity. In spite of his able defence, his enemies prevailed upon the fickle and wayward passions of the populace, and they decreed death by poison as his portion. Of his conduct while in prison, after sentence had been pronounced against him, and the magnanimity of the last scene of his life, none are ignorant. Cicero and science wept his unnatural death.

Who noble ends, by noble means, obtains,
Or failing, smiles in exile or in chains,
Like good Aurelius, let him reign or bleed,
Like Socrates that man is great indeed.*

Notwithstanding the partial estimation, in which Socrates was held by antiquity, and however extraordinary the appearance of such a luminary may be considered in reference to the period of his life, it is only from the writings of his two disciples, Xenophon and Plato, that testimonials of his wisdom are to be collected. These have afforded matter for enthusiastick encomium to all students in ethicks to the present day; but there are those, of no mean taste, who, comparing the merits of moral treatises, adjudge the prize to Tully, of whose book of Offices the famous Barbeyrac* has recorded his testimony, that "without dispute it is the best treatise of morality, with which all antiquity has furnished us."

Should a parallel be run between Socrates and Cicero, with a view to determine which has most influenced the manners and opinions of posterity, the palm of victory would unquestionably be decreed to the Roman. In ethicks and jurisprudence, in oratory and polite literature, whether in theory or in practice, it must be inquired respecting Cicero, as Cicero inquired of Pisistratus, "who of those times surpassed him in learning, or what orator was more eloquent or accomplished?"

In a disquisition upon philosophy, to omit the name of Chancellor Bacon, the great reformer, might be thought little less pardonable, than for a treatise upon the reformation in religion to forget the name of Luther.

It was he, who, in the language of Sir William Jones,† "so elegantly analysed human knowledge according to the three great faculties of the mind, *memory*, *reason*, and *imagination*, which we constantly find employed in arranging and retaining, comparing and distinguishing, combining and diversifying the ideas which we receive through our senses, or acquire by reflection; hence the three main branches of learning are *History*, *Science*, and *Art*. The first comprehends either an account of natural productions, or the genuine records of empires and states; the second embraces the whole circle of pure and mixed mathematicks, together with ethicks and law, so far as they depend on the reasoning faculty; and the third includes all the beauties of imagery, and the charms of invention, displayed in modulated language, or represented by colour, figure, or sound."

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* Pope. Essay on Man.

* Barbeyrac. Preface to Puffendorf.

† Sir William Jones's Works. Discourse pronounced before the Asiatick Society.

It was Bacon, who first gave the plan of those institutions for the acquisition of natural science, which, since his day, have multiplied in, at least, three quarters of the globe; the objects of whose inquiries are "Man and Nature, whatever is performed by the one, or produced by the other."

Of those institutions in our own country, professing similar objects, it is remarkable, that the most conspicuous were founded amid the din of arms, and in the very heat of our struggle for independence; affording an honourable illustration of the truth of a maxim, that the love of liberty and that of solid and useful knowledge walk hand in hand.

Philosophy, indeed, is no longer followed as a profession, but in every branch of profitable knowledge, the labourers are many. Freedom of inquiry, aided by facilities in communicating the result of laborious investigation, has already led to valuable improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. *Civil polity* is in the hands of the *people*...let them look to it; while science and the whole family of her kindred, may be safely confided to the fostering care of our *Alma Mater*.

Upon you, my brethren, who are still detained in academick groves, it would be superfluous to inculcate emulation. "Verily the reward is great." Slaves to no sect, but followers of all who point the path to truth, let it be your pride, as it is your precious prerogative, like the Eclectick Philosophers, to profit of all the good and discard all the pernicious tenets of ancient or modern times. Like good soldiers in the ranks of *Minerva*, learn to vanquish every obstacle in your march to the fortress of knowledge, and as a motto for your banners, while scaling the ramparts of her citadel, may each individual adopt the inspiration of the Mantuan Muse.

"Tentanda via est quâ me quoque possim
Tollere humo; victorque virum volitare per ora."

"I too will boldly strive my flight to raise,
And wing'd by victory, catch the gale of praise."
Sotheby Trans.

CRITICISM.

Translated for the Anthology from the Cours de Literature of La Harpe.

[Concluded from p. 466.]

Here Narcissus begins to be more at his ease. He wished to sound the soul of Nero: it opens, and he sees, that nature has not cast one sigh, that there is there no remorse, not one sentiment of virtue; that Nero has done nothing from any regard to his brother, or his mother, or Burrhus, but he only still fears the publick opinion, the last restraint of a perverse and and powerful man, when he has some vanity. Nero has yet a little left; and it is by this vanity that Narcissus proceeds to get the mastery of him.

Narcissus.—And, my lord, do you follow their caprices for guides ?
Can you expect that they will always be silent ?
Is it worthy of you to listen to their discourses ?
Will you bury in oblivion all your own desires ?
And will you be the only one, you dare not confide in ?
But, my Lord, the Romans are not known to you.
No : No : in their discourses they are more reserved.
So much precaution enfeebles your government ;
They will soon flatter themselves, that they deserve to be feared.

Et prenez vous, seigneur, leurs caprices pour guides ?
Avez vous pretendu qu'ils se tairaient toujours ?
Est-ce à vous de prêter l'oreille à leurs discours ?
De vos propres desirs perdrez vous la memoire ?
Et serez vous le seul que n'oserez croire ?
Mais, seigneur, les Romains ne vous sont pas connus.
Non : non : dans leurs discours ils sont plus retenus,
Tant de precaution affaiblit votre regne ;
Ils croiront, en effet, meriter, qu'on les craigne.

We see here the most perfidious of all suggestions, and the most effectual with bad princes ; it is, to irritate in them the pride of power. Who can tell how many times adulation has repeated in other terms what is here said by Narcissus. Nothing more remains for him, but to tranquillize Nero, concerning the opinions and discourses of the Romans.

Narcissus.—They have long been subjected and reconciled to the yoke ;
They adore the hand that holds them in chains.
You will find them always ardent to please you :
Tiberius was even fatigued and disgusted at their prompt servitude.
I myself, clothed only with a borrowed power,
Which I received from Claudius with my liberty,
Have a thousand times, in the course of my past glor
Tempted their patience, but never have exhausted it.
You dread the turpitude of a poisoning ?
You may cause the brother to perish, and abandon the sister :
Rome, prodigal of her victims on the altar,
Even were they innocent, would impute to them crimes.
You will see them mark in their kalender for unfortunate days,
These, on which both the sister and brother were born.

Au joug, depuis long temps, ils se sont façonnés ;
Ils adorent la main qui les tient enchaînés.
Vous les verrez toujours ardens à vous complaire ;
Leur prompt servitude a fatigué Tibere.
Moi-même, revêtu d'un pouvoir emprunté
Que je reçus de Claude avec la liberté,
J'ai cent fois, dans le cours de ma gloire passée,
Tenté leur patience, et ne l'ai point lassée.
D'un empoisonnement vous craignez la noirceur ?
Rome, sur les autels prodiguant les victimes,
Fussent-ils innocens, leur trouvera des crimes.
Vous verrez mettre au rang des jours infortunés,
Ceux où jadis la sœur et le frere sont nés.

This actually happened after the murder of Agrippina, and the abjection of the Romans is here painted with the nervous fidelity of the pencil of Tacitus. Nero, delivered, not indeed from his scruples but his fears, defends himself no longer but very feebly.

Narcissus, once more, I cannot undertake it.
I have promised Burrhus ; I could not but yield to him.
I will not yet, by forfeiting my word to him,
Give to his virtue arms against me.
I oppose to his arguments a useless resolution ;
I cannot hear him with a tranquil heart.

Narcisse, encore un coup, je ne puis l'entreprendre.
J'ai promis à Burrhus, il a fallu me rendre.
Je ne veux point encore, en lui manquant de foi,
Donner à sa vertu des armes contre moi.

J'oppose à ses raisons un courage inutile,
Je ne l'ecoute point avec un cœur tranquille.

There remains therefore nothing to destroy, but a remnant of regard for Burrhus, expressed in such a manner, as to shew that the counsels of a virtuous governour press strangely upon Nero, although impatient to throw off every kind of restraint. This is the critical moment to strike the last blow, and Narcissus employs the weapon, so familiar to the profligate, calumny. He attributes to Burrhus, to Seneca, and to all those, who exerted themselves still to restrain the vices of Nero, speeches the most abusive and the most bitter. This artifice of flatterers scarcely ever fails of its effect. They put into the mouth of the man they would destroy, all the contempt, which they feel at the bottom of their own hearts for the master, whom they would deceive.

Narcissus.—Burrhus, my Lord, thinks not always as he says ;
His virtue has address enough to preserve his credit ;
Or rather, they have all but one mind.
They would see, by this stroke, their power reduced ;
Then, my lord, you will be free ; and before you
These, your proud masters, will bend like one of us.
What ? can you be uninformed of what they dare to say of you ?
" Nero, if they are to be believed, was not born for empire ;
" He neither says, nor does any thing, but what they prescribe to him :
" Burrhus manages his heart, Seneca his understanding.
" All his ambition, all his singular virtue,
" Is to exult in conducting a chariot in a race ;
" In contending for prizes, unworthy of his hands ;
" In offering himself as a spectacle to the Romans ;
" In exerting his voice upon the theatre ;
" In singing of songs, which he would have adored ;
" While soldiers, from one moment to another,
" Are employed to excite applauses for him."
Ah ! will you not oblige these gentry to be more discreet ?

Burrhus ne pense pas, Seigneur, tout ce qu'il dit ;
Son adroite vertu menage son crédit ;
Ou plutot ils n'ont tous qu'une même pensée ;
Ils verraient, par ce coup, leur puissance abaissée ;
Vous seriez libre alors, seigneur ; et devant vous,
Ces maitres orgueilleux flechiraient comme nous.
Quoi donc ? ignorez vous tout ce qu'ils osent dire ?
" Nero, s'ils en sont crus, n'est point né pour l'empire,
" Il ne dit, il ne fait que ce qu'on lui prescrit ;
" Burrhus conduit son cœur, Seneque son esprit.
" Pour toute ambition, pour virtu singuliere,
" Il excelle à conduire un char dans la carriere ;
" A disputer des prix indignes de ses mains ;
" A se donner luimême en spectacle aux Romains ;
" A venir prodiguer sa voix sur un théâtre ;
" A reciter des chants qu'il vent qu'on idolâtre ;
" Tandis que des soldats, de momens en momens,
" Vont arracher pour lui des applaudissemens."
Ah ! ne voulez vous pas, les forcer à se taire ?

It is impossible that Nero should resist this infernal address. Every word is an arrow, that pierces him : He is taken at once by all his weaknesses : he must surrender.

Nero.—Come, Narcissus, let us consider what we ought to do.

Viens, Narcisse, allons voir ce que nous devons faire.

He says not, positively, what course he will pursue ; but we see that his resolution is already taken.

This scene is perhaps the greatest lesson, that the dramatick art ever gave to sovereigns. It is asserted, that the part, which relates to spectacles, made such an impression on Louis the Fourteenth, as to correct him in a habit he had indulged in his youth, of acting on the stage, in the feasts of the court. This was an affair of small importance; but this scene, well considered, may afford much greater lessons; and for that which relates to the politicks of courts, of which Corneille so often treats, and which Fontenelle, and so many others, pretend to be so superiorly treated in Otho, I think it is here we are to look for it; that there are only a few general strokes in the small number of verses, which are remembered of Otho, a piece moreover, which is now so little read; but that the whole picture is to be found in the parts of Agrippina, of Burrhus, and of Narcissus.

I shall not speak of the beautiful recital of the death of Britannicus, but to observe, it is the only place, in which Racine, equal to Tacitus in all the rest, and we can say nothing greater in its favour, appears to have fallen below him. The design was to paint the different impressions made upon the courtiers, at the moment when Britannicus expires under the operation of poison.

One half of them rush out with shrieks;
But those, who have been longer habituated to the court,
Compose their countenances by the eyes of Cæsar.

Perhaps we should not desire more, if we were not acquainted with the text of Tacitus. At, quibus altior intellectus, resistunt defici, et Cæsarem intuentes. But those who saw further, remain unmoved, with their eyes fixed on Cæsar.

Nothing is more striking than this absolute immobility, in an event of this nature. To remain master of one's self, at a similar spectacle, to such a degree as to have no motion whatever, before observing the motions of the master, is the last effort of the habit of servility, and the true sublime of the spirit of a courtier. It is thus that Tacitus paints; but Racine, in a moment after, equals him again in those verses, which he owes not to imitation.

His crime alone is not the cause of my despair;
His jealousy has been able to arm him against his brother.
But, madam, if I must explain my grief,
Nero saw him expire, without changing his countenance or colour.
His unfeeling eyes have already the steadiness
Of a tyrant, hardened in crimes from his infancy.

Son crime seul n'est pas ce qui me désespere;
Sa jalousie a pu l'armer contre son frere.
Mais, s'il vous faut, Madame, expliquer ma doulenr,
Nero l'a vu mourir sans changer de couleur.
Ses yeux indifferens on déjà la constance
D'un tyran, dans le crime endurci dès l'enfance.

What nervous expressions! Such, in a hundred places, is the style of this man, to whom they would allow any thing, but the talent of painting love.

One of the characters of genius, and especially of dramatick genius, is to pass from one subject to another without being at a loss, and to be always the same, without resembling itself. We have seen what an astonishing progress Racine had made, when, notwithstanding the success of *Alexander*, returning by his own energy to nature and himself, he fixed at the age of twenty-seven an epocha, as glorious to France as himself, by offering in *Andromache* a new species of tragedy.

It might have been then said, What a distance between Alexander and Andromache! It might have been said afterwards, What a difference between Andromache and Britannicus! We pass into a new world, and fable and history are not more remote from each other, than these two pieces. But how, among beauties of so severe a kind, has he been able to place the ingenuous and innocent tenderness of two young lovers, such as Britannicus and Junia, and preserve himself from those inequalities, which have so often wounded us in Corneille? It is because the fate of these two lovers, which interests us, depends constantly on those imposing personages, who move around them; and it is, above all, by the art of intermingling shades, and by the insensible gradation of colour. Junia is only tender with Britannicus; but when she appears before Nero, who offers her the empire, she is not only a faithful lover, but she becomes noble. She refuses the offers of Nero and the throne of the world without affectation, without an effort, and with an affecting modesty. She does not brave Nero, as most other writers would not failed to have made her; she shews no pride in her refusal; she expresses herself in a manner to gain the esteem of Nero, if Nero could esteem virtue, and to move him in favour of Britannicus, if he had been susceptible of any honest and laudable sentiment. He exhorts her to come over to the empire, to forget Britannicus, disinherited by Claudius. She answers,

——He has commanded my affections,
My lord, and I have not pretended to conceal them.
This sincerity no doubt is not very discreet;
But my mouth is always the interpreter of my heart.
Absent from court, I have not thought it necessary,
My lord, to exercise myself in the art of dissimulation.
I love Britannicus; I was destined for him,
When the empire was to have accompanied my marriage.
But those very misfortunes, which have deprived him of it,
His abolished honours, his deserted palace,
The train of a court, which his fall has banished,
Are so many ties, which constrain Junia.
Every thing you see conspires to gratify your desires;
Your days, always bright, pass away in pleasures;
The empire is for you an inexhaustible source,
Where, if any chagrin interrupts the course of them,
The whole world, solicitous to entertain you,
Is eager to divert your attention and memory from it.
Britannicus is alone; whatever anxiety distresses him,
He sees no one but me, who is interested in his lot,
And has for his only consolation those tears,
Which sometimes are sufficient, to make him forget his misfortunes.

——*Il a su me toucher,*
Seigneur, et je n'ai pas pretendu m'en cacher.
Cette sincerité, sans doute, est peu discret;
Mais toujours de mon cœur ma bouche est l'interprete.
Absente de la cour, je n'ai pas du penser,
Seigneur, qu'en l'art de feindre il fallût m'exercer.
J'aime Britannicus; je lui fus destinée,
Quand l'empire devait suivre son hymênée.
Mais ces même malheurs qui l'en ont ecarté,
Ses honneurs abolis, son palais deserté,
La suite d'une cour que sa chute a bannie,
Sont autant de liens qui retiennent Junie.
Tout ce que vous voyez, conspire à vos desirs,
Vos jours toujours sereins coulent dans les plaisirs;
L'empire est pour vous l'inepuisable source,
Ou, si quelque chagrin en interrompt la course,
Tout l'univers, soigneux de les entretenir,
S'empresse à l'effacer de votre souvenir.
Britannicus est seul; quelque ennui qui le presse,
Il ne voit à son sort que moi, qui s'interesse,
Et n'a pour tout plaisir, seigneur, que quelques pleurs
Qui lui font quelque fois oublier ses malheurs.

This firm and decent language, this generous disinterestedness, these tears, which console an unfortunate prince for the throne he has lost, elevate the love of Junia to the dignity of tragedy. She is not humiliated before the master of the world. This is not talking of love for the sake of speaking of it; it is love, such as we feel it naturally mingled with great interests, and explaining itself in a tone conformable to them. Such is the merit of characteristicks, proper to the subject. This love does not move forcibly, like that of Hermione; but it pleases, it attaches, it interests; and this is enough in a work that produces other effects. The essential thing was, that it should not appear misplaced.

Britannicus, surprised by Nero at the feet of his mistress, offers, in truth, a situation which might belong to comedy, as well as to tragedy. But the danger of Britannicus, and the known character of Nero, exalt this situation; and the scene which results from it, between the two rivals, is a model of dramatick contrasts, in which two opposite characters meet in collision with violence, with one being crushed by the other. The dialogue is perfect; we there see with pleasure the free and dignified vivacity of a young prince and preferred lover, contend against the ascendancy of supreme rank, and the ferocious pride of a jealous tyrant. The character of Britannicus, and the advantage of pleasing Junia, maintains him in a state of equality before the emperour, and the spectator is always pleased to see unjust power humiliated. It is thus, in this piece, that the interests of policy and of love are balanced, without injury to each other, and that colours so different are tempered, without appearing to obscure each other.

For the Anthology.

THE REMARKER. *No.* 14.

Ἔνιοι δοκοῦσιν αἰσχυντηλίαν μὲν ἀναισχυντίᾳ φεύγειν ἀγροικίαν δὲ βωμολοχίᾳ.
PLUTARCH.

IF that precept of ancient wisdom, which directs us to respect ourselves, were properly attended to, it would have almost as happy an influence upon our manners, as upon morals. Many of those, whom we every day meet with, seem to be so ashamed of their own characters, (though sometimes perhaps the shame may be a false one,) as to be willing to assume almost any mode of behaviour rather than that, which would be sincere and natural. I refer to all those classes of men called wits, odd fellows, poor creatures, and by other similar names, for one common disposition runs through them all. Not indeed affectation, though they assume false appearances, for affectation colours her cheeks and blackens her eye-brows, and would have it pass for nature; but the disposition, of which I am speaking, intends not deception but concealment, and will be satisfied with any mask however ugly, provided that it will only hide the real features of character.

For myself, I am convinced, that all the buffoonery and incivility, which these men commit, is not from any preconcerted plan to be disagreeable, but merely because they are afraid to act naturally, and to try to behave like gentlemen. They believe, that they shall fail, and therefore will not make the attempt; and indeed most of us, when we do not do what we ought, had much rather have it laid to the charge of our disinclination, than of our inability. They cannot make a handsome bow, and therefore walk into a room with their hats on their heads; they are not able to turn a compliment prettily, and so exercise themselves in saying rude things; they have no talents to sit still in company with composed faces, and on that account take the first opportunity to distort their features with a laugh; they cannot help forward conversation, and are therefore on the watch to throw obstructions into its way, such as cavils, and silly speeches, and puns. As to disposition, indeed, these people are very different. Some of them, notwithstanding their incivility, have a great deal of broad good nature, so that, as Beatrice says of Benedict, "men laugh at them and beat them." Others snap, and throw out sparks of fire at every touch, so that it is quite unsafe to come near them carelessly. The first kind is sometimes amusing to persons, who have the taste of the times when jesters were kept for the king's use, and who consequently relish the ridiculous, more than they feel the disgusting— These, therefore, though they are never welcomed with a smile, are sometimes received with a laugh, but are commonly dismissed with but a cold invitation to come again; for those, who make us smile, not those who make us laugh, are the persons whom we wish to see often.

The minds of these people, however, are affected in different degrees. Some of them have lucid intervals of long continuance, when they talk and behave very much as they ought. Even as to these, however, there is most commonly in their countenance or manner something, which might betray to an observer that their understandings were not perfectly sound. Others discover themselves by a neglect of usual civilities, an assumed ignorance of common customs, an affected absence when in company, and by other similar symptoms. Mad poets are commonly in the last stage of the disease, as was observable in the time of Horace, who describes them (de Arte Poet. l. 455 et seq.) as being avoided by decent people, *vesanum tetigisse timent*, &c. troubled by boys, *agitant pueri*, followed after by imprudent persons *incautique sequuntur;* and having a propensity to do strange things, such as walking into ditches, perhaps from the love of singularity, *Qui scis an prudens huc se projecerit?* all which diagnosticks are for the most part to be remarked at the present day.

I confess, I cannot help having a regard for the ruins of human nature and the fragments of valuable qualities, which are sometimes to be discovered in these unhappy persons. I view them with the same species of compassion, that Ulysses looked upon his companions in the cave of Circe. Under their unpleasant and bristly exteriour I discover something, which I wish restored to its original dignity, and clothed in the form, which nature intended. That there is a charm, by which this may be done, that there are, as Horace (whom I love to quote) says *verba et voces, quibus lenire dolorem,* I for my part do not doubt. Every one has abilities to be inoffensive, and to be inoffensive, is all that need at first be required of them.

To treat others as we ought however it is necessary, to believe well of one's self. If we do not put some value on our politeness and on our good will and respect, we shall not think it worth while to exercise the former and discover the latter. There are many, who become impudent through want of confidence, and ridiculous from the dread of being laughed at. Without proper assurance, a man may be impertinent or he may be bashful, but is never modest. It may depend on chance, whether he will be one of those, whom we have been describing, who never blush only, as Shakespeare says, "extempore," or one, whose cheeks shall burn and lips shall quiver, whenever he may attempt to speak; whether he will be a person to pour forth words with the most hard-hearted loquacity, or one who shall have courage to utter only monosyllables, and all whose intellectual wealth, like the money we read of in the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, shall vanish away, or turn into leaves and stones in the very moment of use.

There are certain classes of men, who are particularly liable to bashfulness; but these, though they are ignorant and timid subjects of custom, and sometimes suffer from incurring her penalties, must not rebel against her laws. Men of genius, who come into company to observe everything and to feel every thing, are troubled by a thousand trifles, which the rest of the world do not notice. Persons of retirement too, observe and feel in the same manner, not so much that it is the habit of their minds, as because every thing which presents itself is new and strange. Men of profound study and deep research often suffer vexation from their ignorance of that, which a child could have taught them; and the scholar, who loves to sit alone by the light of a midnight lamp, when he ventures into the noise and glare of an assembly, is confused and dazzled and bewildered and glad to get back with as little notice as possible. But none of these people should distrust their abilities for the common intercourse of life; they should remember, what every one knows, that to be agreeable to others little more is required than good sense and good nature, and that if they will learn *desipere in loco*, to smile and to be cheerful, they may in a little time acquire the art of pleasing. Those to whom we look up, as far above us in the faculties of the mind, have this more especially in their power; it is then little else than the art of condescension; and we are charmed by their becoming our play-fellows, even though they should make a thousand mistakes in the game.

When the light bands of decorum are irritating, it is an easy thing to cast them off; but it is not so easy to assume them again at pleasure. Manners, not decorous nor convenient to our character, by being frequently assumed may become habitual, though not natural. We may trifle ourselves into habits of serious inconvenience, as children by aping in sport the bad tricks of their schoolfellows, at last come to suffer from them as their own. What at first was only pettishness, which it seemed might at any time be laid aside, will ripen perhaps into real illnature; impertinence may harden into brutality; and trifling behaviour sink into confirmed inanity. Indeed, I believe, that most of our bad habits, even including vices, are taken upon us unawares, and that we seldom believe ourselves under their dominion, till it has a long time been apparent to others.

Let no man think it of light

consequence, what may be his manners, for by our manners alone have the greater part of us any power to add to the happiness, or to substract from the misery of others. To diffuse general instruction or delight; to eradicate the diseases, which prey upon our bodies, or to loosen the vices, which corrupt our minds; to take much in any way from the load of wretchedness, which presses upon human life, is the privilege of but very few. Even opportunities for the more weighty active virtues are but seldom in our power, but we may be cheerful, though we cannot be charitable, and mild, though we have no opportunity to be merciful.

BIOGRAPHY.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

[Continued from page 457.]

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.

PLATO, de Legib. IV.

IN the following year Thirlby published an edition of Justin Martyr's two apologies, and of his famous dialogue with Tripho, which he dedicated to Lord Craven. Of the scholars who flourished in that age Thirlby was inferiour to few, in point of taste and learning.

The dedication is a wonderful composition. In this species of writing he is *haud ulli secundus!*—second to none; and few are there who can claim an *equal* rank. In the same class may be reckoned Barton's preface to Plutarch's parallel Lives of Demosthenes and Cicero. Such discernment, such fancy, such solid judgment and deep erudition have rarely been seen, nor would it be easy to point out a third, who might complete a triumvirate.

In Thirlby's preface we have frequently been pleased with a sullen truth, which he tells, when he mentions his having found several conjectures in the notes which Davis communicated to him, similar to those which he had before inserted in his own observations: "Do not imagine I shall praise that which is in a great measure my own, or that I shall adopt the custom of criticks, and tell you, that I was rejoiced to find my conjectures confirmed by the authority of so great a man. Believe me, such a concurrence never gave real pleasure. No author ever wishes that the praises, however trifling they may be, which are due to his discoveries, should be snatched from him, or shared by another."

The notes are likewise admirable. No dull comments, no daring assertions, no hazardous conjectures, or tasteless, long-winded remarks upon trifles. He was a first-rate critick, and he entertains by his sprightliness, while he surprises by his learning and acumen. He was Bentley's avowed enemy, and speaks of him with great contempt in some of his notes.

It was asserted, that Dr. Ashton, the Master of Jesus College, assisted Thirlby in this edition, although he lived in habits of friendship with Bentley, and was one of the few whom he honoured with his regard. Such treachery and cowardly conduct would deserve no quarter; but on the other hand it had been said, that Ashton was so far from bestowing any of his notes on Thirlby, that he published a criticism on his edition in one of the foreign journals. We hope the *latter* is the *true* story.

The edition was mentioned in a poem, which was published about this time, and was intituled, "The Session of the Criticks." After displaying the pretensions of Jortin and others the author adds:

> "From his garret, where long he had rusted, came down
> *Toby Thirlby*, cocksure that the prize was his own,
> Crying, 'Z—d's where's this Bentley? I'll give him no quarter!'
> And haul'd out the preface to his fam'd *Justin* Martyr."

In this year Wasse published a copy of Greek Trochaicks, addressed to Bentley, on his edition of Horace. These were inserted in Jebb's *Bibliotheca Literaria**, and were followed by a long and, indeed, tedious Latin elegy, addressed likewise to our critick, and on the same subject. In all probability, Bentley was not much flattered by these compositions. In the Greek the laws of Prosedy and of the Trochaick measure are frequently violated. Wasse, however was a good scholar, but possessed more learning than taste, and more reading, perhaps, than judgment. His acquaintance with books was very extensive, and his memory must have been uncommonly tenacious, for Jortin affirmed as we have been told, that he never knew any man who could cite authorities for words and phrases from the Greek and Latin writers with so much promptitude and accuracy as Wasse.

As the editor of Sallust and Thucydides, Wasse is well known to the literary world. Besides his notes on these authors, and his papers, in the *Bibl. Literaria*, he wrote little. There is, however, in the Philosophical Transactions, an account of an earthquake by him, which is little known. His death happened while Taylor was writing his Lectiones Lysiacæ, in which he has inserted a short eulogium of this great scholar, by which it appears that he was much valued by his learned contemporaries. As to his erudition, no doubts can be ascertained, as besides his labours as a commentator, Bentley said, as it is reported, that after his own death Wasse would be the most learned man in England.

Dr. Bentley, as far as we have heard, took no *publick* notice of Thirlby, or the attack, in his notes on Justin Martyr, whatever might have been his private sentiments. He had relinquished all thoughts of publishing the Greek Testament, but yet he still pursued his favourite pursuits, and spent his time in preparing an edition of Terence.

His enemies now seemed weary of attacking him, and he enjoyed a temporary quiet, free from their molestations. About this period, however, at the Cambridge assizes, when Bentley was summoned into court, as a Justice of Peace for the county, the crier styled him Richard Bentley, Doctor in Divinity. The Vice-chancellor, who was present, immediately reprimanded him, and said, "*There is no such person!*" The judge, finding that his name stood in the rolls under that description, ordered the crier to repeat the call, and added, that the court would not be influenced by academical acts, in opposition to a commission under the great seal.

At the publick commencement in the year 1725, on July the 6th, Dr. Bentley delivered publickly a La-an oration, on the creation of seven Doctors of Divinity. In this speech there is a high panegyrick on the House of Hanover, in which some of the compliments are elegant and polished. But in his description of the ceremony, the explanations of the symbols used at creation are frequently puerile. The Latinity is admirable, and the whole abounds in passages of uncommon merit.

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* Of this work, which is scarce, see some account in Nichols's Anecdotes of the Life of Bowyer. To this entertaining work we are indebted for the quotation from the Session of Criticks.

In 1726, appeared a new edition of Terence, Phedrus, and the *Sententiæ* of Publius Syrus, with the notes and corrections of Richard Bentley. It was printed at Cambridge, and in the *Italick* character, which circumstance, in our opinion, is far from adding to the value or beauty of the book. It contains the entire notes of Faernus, who examined the most ancient manuscripts of Terence, and was dedicated to Prince Frederick, who was afterwards Prince of Wales.

After a short advertisement, which merely relates the contents of the volume, follows a very learned dissertation on the metres of Terence, in which he has proved the whole of the plays to have been written in verse. This treatise, which has been justly praised by the elegant Harris, in his *Philological Inquiries*, seems in great measure to have laid the foundation for the canon, or rule, which Dawes establishes in his *Miscellanea Critica*, with respect to the syllables in Greek poetry, which are to be distinguished by an *ictus* or *beat*. At the same time, he affects to speak slightly of Bentley's labours, and exalts his own. But we must proceed, as we cannot at present allow room for the discussion of this subject; and will only add, that the common mode of reading *Iambick* verse appears to us the most eligible.

In this edition, there are many passages which Bentley has corrected with a happy sagacity. His notes on the three authors are short and less ostentatious, and his emendations less violent, than those on Horace. Many of his corrections of Phedrus have received their just tribute of applause, and been admitted into the the text by the learned Gabriel Brotier, in his edition of this writer, whose fables he elegantly styles, *Primas juventutis delicias, extrema senectutis solatia, media ætatis oblectamenta.* His emendation of one of the verses of Publius Syrus we will give as a specimen:

> "*Amissum quod nescitur, non amittitur.*"

The copies have *dimissum*, which is undoubtedly wrong, for what is bestowed willingly, or taken by force, must be known. *Amissum* is certainly the true reading: as in a rich house,

> "*Ubi multa supersunt,*
> *Et dominum fallunt, et prosunt furibus.*"

This emendation is ingenious and plausible. The same sentiment occurs in Shakespeare's Othello:

> "He that is robb'd, not wanting what
> is stolen,
> "Let him not know it, and he's not
> robb'd at all."

Bentley inserted all his corrections in the text; but he frequently trusts too much to conjecture. In his notes he defends and explains the new readings. Many of his emendations on Terence were found in the manuscripts of this author by Westerhovius, and inserted in his edition. In the preface, however, he tells us, that a critick would, indeed, merit the title of *Magnus Apollo*, who should present to the world a *genuine* Terence, amid such a variety of lections, and such confused versification.

When an author publishes a book, he immediately affords his enemies apportunity of avenging any injúries which they have received. This was strongly exemplified after the appearance of Dr. Bentley's Terence, previous to which he had quarrelled with Dr. Hare, his former friend, adviser, and panegyrist. The origin of their dispute has been thus related:

After Lord Townshend had established the professorship for modern languages and history in both the Universities, and appointed the preachers, from their younger clergy at Whitehall, he proposed that a pension of a thousand pounds a year should be given toDr.Bentley, upon condition that he would publish some editions of the classicks, for the use of the Royal grandchildren. No time was to be stipulated, or any manner prescribed. The whole was to be managed as the Doctor wished, and as his leisure permitted.

Hare was chosen to settle the business between Lord Townshend and Dr. Bentley. But when the matter was nearly brought to a conclusion, the envious and malignant suggestions of some enemy, whom Bentley supposed to be Hare, put an end to the whole negociation.

Instead of an annual establishment and publications *suo arbitrio*, the negociator now brought intelligence that Lord Townshend proposed that Dr. Bentley should receive a certain sum for every sheet. He immediately rejected the offer with disdain, and refused to enter into any engagement with persons who distrusted his honour: "I wonder Dr. Hare, you should bring me such a proposal, who have known me so long and so well. What! if I had no regard to their honour, or to my own, would there be any difficulty in filling *sheets*? Tell them I will have nothing to do with them."

Dr. Bentley never afterwards placed any confidence in Hare, as he knew him to be the suggester of the last scheme. He chose *dissuere amicitiam, non dirumpere.* When Hare published his Terence, which is now seldom mentioned, he dedicated it to Lord Townshend, in whose favour he undermined Bentley; and gave some remarks on the metres of his author, which he had *stolen* from his learned friend in the course of conversation. With these assistances, he produced his Terence, which the Italick character, and the multitude of accentual marks render very disagreeable to the reader.

When Bentley perceived, that he had himself armed his adversary, by that spirit of communication which always shewed itself, when he perceived taste or genius, learning, or even curiosity, in any inquirer, he determined to bring out his own edition, with the utmost expedition. He sent over to Holland for the types with which the book was printed, and allowed himself only a week to digest the notes on each of the comedies. This at least was his own account. He added Phedrus also to this edition, because he knew that Hare proposed to publish that author.

Such is the history of Bentley's Terence. He had no apprehensions about success, though Hare had attempted to anticipate his plans; but his antagonist immediately gave up his views, as to publishing Phedrus. The *cause* of this quarrel was not generally known; but the effect which it produced was sufficiently publick, for in the year after Bentley's Terence was printed appeared an *E*-

pistola Critica, which contained an examination of Bentley's notes on Phedrus, by Hare, whose resentment was greatly heightened by finding his name was not once mentioned by the Doctor, in his edition. A *survey* of the Terence was promised, but probably without any intention of performance. Dr. Salter has observed, that Hare had too high and too just an opinion of his former friend's abilities and learning to hazard his reputation with such a literary disputant. For with regard to the annotations on these authors, and with regard to the metrical disquisitions, Bentley appeared even with greater advantages in the contest, than the learned Bishop of London did, when he attacked Hare's arrangements of the Hebrew measures.

To be continued.

For the Monthly Anthology.

SILVA. *No.* 20.

Frutetis et arboribus dilapsa folia.—PLIN.

JOSEPH FAWCETT.

IT is my common practice, after returning from church on Sundays, to read a sermon or a chapter in the bible. To render the task of perusing theological lectures as pleasant as may be, I have recourse to variety. If I want sermons which elucidate the scriptures, I consult Dr. S. Clarke. If I seek an exposure of ecclesiastical abuses, the historick and lively Jortin is best adapted to my purpose. If I need the bitter pill of repentance, and wish at once to be disciplined and consoled, I open the judicious Doddridge or the seraphick Watts. But if I would feast my eyes with lessons of virtue in their enchanting forms, decked with the plumes of a fine imagination, and soaring aloft in an expansive sky, Fawcett is the author I most greedily seize and longest retain. I am not certain, that his eloquence is exactly proper to the pulpit, nor would I choose my own minister should feed me habitually with such delicious dishes. Plain roast-beef and plumb-pudding sermons are probably easiest of digestion, yield the most wholesome nutriment, and are in regular succession perhaps the most agreeable to the taste. I confess however that I should be well pleased to hear occasionally this preacher, whose style of delivery, a gentleman told me the other day, is equally splendid as that of his writing.

DESCRIPTION OF HELL.

A future state was believed and taught among the Danes and Saxons, prior to the introduction of christianity into the isle of Britain. They called the place of punishment Nistheim, or the abode of evil, where Hela dwelt; whose palace was anguish; her table, famine; her waiters, expectation and delay; the threshold of her door, precipice; her bed, leanness; and her looks, terrour.

CAUSE OF THE PATHETICK.

It was wont to be jocularly said of a Mr. Lockhart, a celebrated pleader at the British bar, during the last century, that the amount of his honorarium, or fee, could be easily discovered in his countenance: for, if handsome, he appeared deeply affected at the justice of his client's case; but if unexpectedly great, he regularly melted into tears.

SOCIETY.

Man is inconsiderable by his single exertions: it is only by uniting his efforts with those of his species that he produces any thing of consequence. The bee is a small insect, and the ant still smaller, yet by association they build themselves a name and a monument more valuable, than the solitary lion is able to boast.

CIGARRS.

In face of a host of arguments our literary loungers contumaciously insist on being indulged the gratification of tickling their noses and burning their tongues. If you allege that the practice is vulgar and democratick, you are answered, Sir W. Raleigh is equally famous as a man of fashion and philosopher, as for his habit of smoking. Should you object to them the ladies' dislike to the practice, they tell you, that queen Elizabeth, of glorious memory, was fond of a pipe, and used humorously to say, that *all the pleasures of the evening ended in smoke.* If lastly you oppose to it kingly authority, urging that James I. wrote a treatise *against the smoking of base tobacco*, the smokers will reply, we burn none but what is *good.*

DOMESTICK PLEASURES.

Abroad men sometimes pass for more, and sometimes for less, than they are worth. The politician rolls himself up like a hedge-hog before strangers; but in private he shoots his quills. Tiberius was celebrated by those who did not know him; but his rhetorical tutor hesitated not to pronounce him *Luto et sanguine maceratum.* Liberty and leisure develope character. It is in the domestick circle, in the family parlour, in his gown and slippers, in giving orders to his servants, that a man is thoroughly seen. Here he acts without disguise or restraint. Here he assumes no unnatural airs of importance, but calmly lays aside his foreign manners, and all his extravagant pretensions. Whether accustomed to rule in the senate, to expound in the desk, or to contend in the field, he claims no privilege from his factitious consequence, when he enters his own mansion. The tenderness of a wife instantly arches his brow, and he gladly exchanges the robe or the sword, the high-toned voice and the stately port, for the prattle of his children, and the puerilities and sports of the hearth. Here, unpinioned by fashion, he acknowledges the dominion of nature, and neither a stranger nor a bachelor intermeddleth with his joy.

He will not blush that has a father's heart,
To take in childish play a childish part;
But bends his sturdy neck to any toy,
That youth takes pleasure in, to please his boy.

BEAUTY AND VIRTUE.

Not gardens, houses, dress, equipage, nor human faces, nor the finest exhibitions of nature or of art, are alone entitled to be denominated beautiful, as the excellent Francis Hutcheson has proved, in his inquiry into the original of our ideas of beauty and virtue. But no where is the comparison between the grandeur of natural objects, and the superiour sublimity of moral actions, more boldly drawn than in these lines of Akenside.

Look then abroad through nature to the range
Of planets, suns, and adamantine spheres,

Wheeling, unshaken, through the void immense;
And speak, O man! does this capacious scene,
With half that kindling majesty dilate
Thy strong conception, as when Brutus rose
Refulgent from the stroke of Cæsar's fate,
Amid the crowd of patriots; and his arm
Aloft extending, like eternal Jove,
When guilt brings down the thunder, call'd aloud
On Tully's name, and shook his crimson steel,
And bade the father of his country hail!
For lo! the tyrant prostrate in the dust!
And Rome again is free........

ART OF READING.

To read, says M. Reytaz, is not to collect letters and syllables; it is not to pronounce words and sentences; it is to represent the thoughts of a discourse in their appropriate colours. It is to blend the different passages in such a manner, as not to injure each other; but, on the contrary, to give to each mutual strength and assistance. It is to distinguish by the accent, what is only argumentative, from what is pathetick and oratorical; it is to discern any important end in a sentence, in order to detach it from the rest, and express it without affectation, and without the appearance of design; it is to convey the idea, rather than the expressions, the sentiments rather than the words; it is to follow the impulse of the discourse in such a manner, that the delivery may be quick or slow, mild or impetuous, according to the emotions it should excite.

POPE.

Attached to the thread of every man's life is a little medal, whereon his name is inscribed, which *Time*, waiting on the shears of *Fate*, catches up, as it falls from the inexorable steel, and bears to the river *Lethe*; into which, were it not for certain birds, flying about its banks, it would be immediately immerged. But these seize the medals ere they fall, and bear them for a while up and down in their beaks with much noise and flutter; but careless of their charge, or unable to support it, they most of them soon drop their shining prey one after another into the oblivious stream. Nevertheless, among these heedless carriers of fame, are a few swans, who, when they catch a medal, convey it carefully to the temple of Immortality, where it is consecrated. These swans of late have been *raræ aves*. What innumerable names have been dropped into the dark stream of Oblivion, for one that has been consecrated in the temple of Immortality!— The name of Alexander Pope there shines conspicuous.

SWANS.

The swan never frequents the Padus, nor the banks of the Cayster in Lydia, each of them a stream celebrated by the ancient poets for the resort of swans. Horace calls Pindar *Dircæum Cignum*, and, in another ode, supposes himself changed into a swan.

Virgil speaks of his poetical brethren in the same manner.

Vere, tuum nomen.————
Cantantes sublime ferent ad sidera cygni.

When he speaks of them figuratively, he gives to them a power of melody; but when he refers to them as a naturalist, he gives them their natural uncouth sound.

Dant sonitum *rauci* per stagna loquacia cygni.

The swan seldom is heard except when on the wing, and its notes then have no inconsiderable affinity to those of the owl.

Milton's description of the swan is as beautiful, as almost any found among the ancient writers, notwitstanding their great partiality to this bird.

..... The swan, with arched neck
Between her white wings mantling, proudly rows
Her state with wary feet.

I find by an act of Edw. IV. c. 6. "no one, possessing a freehold of less clear yearly value than five marks, shall be permitted to keep swans, other than the son of our sovereign lord the king."

And in such high estimation were they then had in England, that by II. Henry VIII. c. 17. the punishment for taking their eggs was "*imprisonment for a year and a day, and to be fined at the king's good pleasure.*"—It seems they are not quite so highly valued by those who resort to Hudson's Bay, and annually kill about three or four thousand, which are salted, pickled, and sold for "*very good sea stores.*"

FALSE WIT.

Amongst the false wit of the 17th century, the writing of *billets doux*, in the shape of shovels and tongs, acrosticks, riddles, rebusses, &c. &c. &c. the *Palindromus* holds as good a claim to ridicule as any. Camden, I think, refined upon this species of literature, and made the Palindromick muse go backward as well as forward—for instance:

"Odo tenet mulum, madidam mappam tenet Anna.
Anna tenet mappam madidam, mulum tenet Odo."

The ingenious reader may now read it forward, and when he has done thus, he will be convinced he might as well have read it backward.

MILO OF CROTONA.

The champion who most distinguished himself in the Olympick Games, in the Palé, at wrestling, according to Pausanias, was Milo of Crotona; he gained no less than six Olympick, and as many Pythian crowns. There are so many instances of the prodigious strength of this famous wrestler, and most of them so well known, that it would be as endless as impertinent to cite them. But I cannot forbear producing one, as remarkable for the singularity, as the issue of the experiment. Milo, to give a proof of his astonishing power, used to take a *pomegranate*, which, without squeezing or breaking, he held so fast by the mere strength of his fingers, that no person was able to take it from him—"*nobody but his mistress,*" says Elian. But however weak he may have been with regard to the fair sex, his superiour force was universally acknowledged by men, as will appear in the following

EPIGRAM.

"When none adventur'd in th' Olympick sand,
The might of mighty Milo to withstand;
Th' unrivall'd chief advanc'd to seize the crown,
But mid the triumph, slipt unwary down.
The people shouted, and forbade bestow
The wreath on him who fell without a foe.
But, rising in the midst, he stood and cried,
Do not *three* falls the victory decide?
Fortune, indeed, hath giv'n me one, but who
Will undertake to throw me t'other two?"

For the Anthology.

Scribimus indocti........ Hor. Epist.

WE should do injustice to our country to deny, that she is prolifick in authors. Were we to judge of the progress of the mind by the number of works, which daily issue from the press, we might congratulate ourselves on living in this enlightened age, when the weakness of humanity no longer presents obstacles to the march of reason, and when authors compose with as much facility as they print their works. We cannot complain of want of novelty on any subject. Some quit the loom and spindle to wield the historick pen; others wander from the circle of domestick duties, or the routine of mechanick life, among the illusions of a heated imagination, mistaking her distorted features for the scenery of nature; or are humbly contented to glean the sprigs of laurel, which have fallen from the brow of genius. Even the stall of the cobbler is metamorphosed into the workshop of the muses, and its inhabitant is occupied in the double employment of manufacturing leather and fabricating verses. Conversation, one would imagine, would afford a convenient channel to this superfluity of wit; and that these minds, contented with the homage of a circle of sycophants, more ignorant than themselves, who echo all their thoughts and imitate all their actions, would never burthen the publick with their crude ideas, nor seek to gain a height, which their feeble pinions were never meant to reach. But it is the prerogative of folly to proclaim her character to the world; and, unfortunately, the press is too often made the herald of her presence. From this corrupted source daily flow those streams of false taste and literary absurdity, which have inundated the republick of letters. Like the rich ornaments of a mausoleum, the splendid outside of their works covers a mere *caput mortuum*. Mistaking verbosity of expression for fecundity of thought, and the strainings of a witless brain for the deductions of reason, we may say with the poet,

> They write on all things, but on nothing well.

But we leave these authors, and cannot wish them a greater punishment while in this world, than to be continually surrounded by their own works, the monuments of their ignorance and vanity.

Love of method is discoverable in all our actions. This principle is even extended to works of the mind and imagination, and we anticipate with as much pleasure the developement of it in a literary composition, as we expect it illustrated in a piece of mechanism. Fine writing therefore, to produce a permanent interest, must discover that, in the conduct of the whole, order as well as beauty has been consulted. The mind is often amused by the vagaries of the imagination, or hurried along by the aberrations of genius, but she returns with pleasure to dwell on the works of those authors, who gratify the taste without offending the judgment. The art of fine writing is acquired by degrees. Avec quelque talent, says Rousseau, qu'on puisse être né, l'art d'écrire ne s'apprend pas tout d'un coup. Literary excellence is not the effect of an accidental ray of genius, nor of a momentary glow of enthusiasm ; the former must be tempered by industry, the latter by judgment. The mind must struggle with her new ideas, and, by reiterated efforts, reduce them to order and arrange them with taste. Man is born with an unwrought mine within him ; and, while he extracts the golden ore and refines the precious metal, he gives acumen to the very instruments, with which he works.

No maxim perhaps has done more injury to the cause of letters, than that, by which a writer is directed to feel his subject, before he attempts its expression. We are led to believe, that if the sacred flame can once be produced, the whole composition will glow with an equal warmth, and that this excitement of mind will naturally be followed by a correct view of the subject, a just arrangement of parts, and a perspicuous and elegant language. Instead therefore of suffering the mind tranquilly to pursue her train of ideas, and by patience and perseverance to arrange them in a lucid order and clothe them in a just expression, an artificial warmth is excited, by which they are expanded into bombast, or dissipated into "thin air." The mind of a writer must ever be at ease and, like the Alps, tower sublime and unmoved amid the conflict of the passions. No modern writer perhaps discovers more warmth of imagination or rapidity of conception than Rousseau. His success in letters however was the consequence of the unwearied exertion of a superiour mind. Je les consacrais, says he in speaking of his works, les insomnies de mes nuits. Je meditais dans mon lit, à yeux fermés et je tournois et rétournois mes periodes, dans ma tête, avec des peines incroyables. His works are composed with such spirit and enthusiasm, that we are disposed to imagine he never took up the pen, but when he glowed with those transports, with which he agitates the bosoms of his readers. It was, however, only by preserving a free and tranquil mind, that he was able so successfully to combine in his works every circumstance, which could add strength to his ideas, or elegance to his composition. In the imitative and mechanical arts we find that, independent of peculiar talents, success is generally proportional to the degree of labour bestowed on their objects ; and may not the observation be extended to the art of writing ? Is the exertion of mind in the latter less, because its powers are differently directed ? or does it require less genius and industry to perfect a literary work, than is developed in the production of a painting, or a statue ? A genius like Raphael, before he commits his images to the canvas, selects from the materials, which his imagination had collected from the works of nature ; he contrasts, combines, disposes of his light and shade ; he varies with judgment and groups with taste, till having breath'd over the whole the charm of ideal beauty, he seizes the pencil and with patient industry gradually gives to the fleeting visions of his imagination the permanence of real existence. But this is not the effect of mere impulse. It is the creation of genius, aided by study and developed by industry. Hence also the writer, ambitious of literary fame, is convinced with Pope, that

> True ease in writing comes from art,
> not chance.

Like the painter, he attends to what may be termed the mechanical part of composition. After the acquisition of ideas, which have been strengthened by reflection and chastened by purity of taste, he submits them to a correct arrangement and embodies them in a perspicuous and harmonious expression. From their continued attention to these three constituents, thoughts, arrangement, and style, results the interest with which the works of some authors are read. We are hurried along by a pleasing violence, and mistake the effect of the taste, the judgment, and the profound exertions of the writer, for the unaffected, spontaneous flow of nature. We seize the pen with a desire to imitate, but soon resign it in despair, convinced how near the perfection of art and the effusions of nature approach each other. These are the authors one delights to read. These are the sublime souls, that seem to have caught a ray of inspiration from heaven to conduct their fellow mortals through mazes of errour, to the sacred bowers of eternal truth and happiness.

The ancients, more honest than the moderns, acknowledged the difficulty of acquiring the art of writing well. They never imagined, that tardiness of composition necessarily implied poverty of ideas, nor that application damped the mental flame. They preferred the steady blaze of intellect to a meteorous brilliancy, which expires in the effort that gave it birth. For examples we might mention the poet Euripides, who was employed three days in the composition of as many verses; and the orator Isocrates, whose Attick taste found exercise for ten years on a single oration. The illustrious Cicero could not pen even a familiar epistle, without bestowing on it a degree of labour, which the economy of our modern writers would hardly expend on an octavo. The author of the Æneid was twenty-seven years in perfecting that beautiful mental fabrick, which, like the Grecian temples, happily combines simplicity with grandeur, and dignity with taste. Even some of the moderns have been convinced of this truth. The celebrated author of "Les Lettres Provinciales" records, that he was agitated ten whole days in fixing the signification of a single word. The whole life of the musing Gray afforded the world, but a small bouquet of intellectual flowers, and even some of these were culled from the rich fields of ancient literature. These examples are sufficient to prove, that by those, who have most excelled in literary composition, fine writing has been considered an art, the acquirement of which depended on a profound and continued exertion of intellect. Ideas undoubtedly form the first object of attention, but language, though a subordinate, is still an essential part. Indeed the effect of the former results, in a great degree, from the character of the latter. It is by the union of these, that the enraptured soul is fired by

> "Thoughts that breathe, and words that burn."

We cannot but admire, therefore, the pains that our authors take to send forth to the world their imbecile productions, which survive but a day, and then lie dusty and neglected on the bookbinder's shelf, till they are transported, with other literary trash, to the pastry cook's or the trunkmaker's. To these writers, thus infected with the *cacoethes scribendi*, we would recommend the observation of an ancient painter, who, when he was accused of tardiness of execution, replied, Diu pingo, quum in æternum pingo.

PHILAUTHOS.

POETRY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

DOMINI,

Si hic flosculus, in vestrâ Anthologiâ positus, boni aliquid vel auribus vel *oculis* haberet, inserite, ac alios mittam.

AD
JULIUM,
ACADEMIAM PRO MERCATURA LINQUENTUM.

Eheu! quam miseri sunt Avaritiæ
Servi, matris atræ sordis et asperæ;
Sulcatæ assiduo pondere, tempora,
Aurati diadematis.

Vidi, eheu! miseros, Lucifero duce,
Privatim numerantes gravis annulos
Fulgentisque catenæ; venientis ab
Pallentesque pedis metu.

Juli, in hoc numerari grege sordido,
Musis perpetuò, visne, rejectus ab?
Dic, tantum unde venit, dic, capiti tuo,
Hoc desiderium opum?

Merces, Virgilii, judice Julio,
Apparet melior versibus optimis!—
Vasto in gurgite avarûm i, puer ebrius,
Vestrûm oblivius ac tui.

LUCIUS.

For the Monthly Anthology.

PASTORAL.

O fortunatos nimium, sua si bona norint,
Agricolas! quibus ipsa, procul discordibus armis
Fundit humo facilem victum justissima tellus.——VIRGIL.

BETWEEN those sister elms with ivy hoar
Peeps out the simple cottage of the poor;
How green before the door that clover-lawn!
How sweet the hedges smell of fragrant thorn!
How pure that brook limps o'er its pebbly bed,
'Tween banks of thyme where willows hang the head,
And linnets build, and fly from spray to spray,
And warble wild their song the livelong day.

On yonder hills, that skirt the eastern sky,
When morn begins to peer with prudish eye,
Scarce gilds the mists, that cloud the fuming rill,
Or tips the foam, that breaks beside the mill,
Forth from *this* dwelling hies the early swain,
And, whistling, field-ward drives his lagging wain.
No wants are his by restless greatness felt,
No studious lids his little taper melt,
Regardless he, howe'er the world may fare,
So timely crops repay his honest care.

Oft have I view'd in still and sultry hours,
All loosely spread beneath his native bowers,
While herds around the flowery pasture took,
This vacant shepherd, sleeping on his crook.
How lightly here methought his moments flew,
Remov'd from noisy fame and publick view;

No seeming friend beside his bosom laid,
But faithful Watch who guards the checker'd shade ;
No fawning slave who waits Ambition's word,
With crimson hand to flesh the murderous sword.
His tuneful groves that gratulate the dawn,
The flocks that wander o'er the peaceful lawn,
And smiling Spring, her hair with cowslips bound,
From rosy fingers strewing fragrance round ;
While cooling Zephyr sports on gelid wings,
Skims o'er the plain and through the greenwood sings,
Shakes liquid pearl from off the nodding sheaf,
Or whispering plays on aspen's twinkling leaf.

When Day retiring fires the glowing west
With broken clouds, that round his forehead rest,
When moping owlets quit the mouldering tower,
And widow'd turtles moan in lonely bower,
When hill and tree a lengthen'd shadow throw,
And mournful Evening comes in weeds of wo,
Returning home the swain with pleasure eyes,
In wreaths fantastick climbing through the skies,
The smoke from out his little cabin creep,
Which trees imbowering veil in umbrage deep.
In 'kerchief clean and speckl'd apron gay,
His Mary speeds to meet him on the way ;
While round in breathless haste his children press,
And fondly struggle for the first caress.

And through the naked woods when cold winds blow,
And chirping sparrows nestle in the snow,
While on the bush the slender 'cicles hang,
And bitter Winter bites with icy fang,
Beside the cleanly hearth, where faggots sing,
And through the room a social brightness fling,
Amid the group he sits with marvelling gaze,
Listening the fearful tales of gothick days ;
How spectres groaning stalk'd their dusky round
With saucer eyes, in charnel garments wound ;
How once in ruin'd castle, strange to tell,
At waste of midnight toll'd the northern bell ;
Where none at evening e'er so stout durst stray,
Lest gliding ghost should cross his blasted way.
If chance with passing breeze the casement jar,
All trembling huddle round the speaker's chair.

Thus flow his hours harmonious, tranquil, clear,
While pleasures vary with the varying year.....
Here would I lose the world without a sigh,
And wish my humbler bones inturf'd to lie.

PETER PASTORAL.

To the Editors of the Monthly Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

If the following be too trifling for insertion in the Anthology, it is requested, that it may be laid by without notice.

ON LISTENING TO A CRICKET.

I LOVE, thou little chirping thing,
To hear thy melancholy noise ;
Though thou to fancy's ear may sing,
Of summer past, and fading joys.

Thou canst not now drink dew from flowers,
Nor sport along the traveller's path,
But through the winter's weary hours,
Shall warm thee at my lonely hearth;

And when my lamp's decaying beam,
But dimly shews the letter'd page,
Rich with some ancient poet's dream;
Or wisdom of a purer age,

Then will I listen to thy sound,
And musing o'er the embers pale,
With whitening ashes strewed around;
The forms of memory unveil;

Recal the many-coloured dreams,
That fancy fondly weaves for youth,
When all the bright illusion seems
The pictured promises of truth.

Perchance, observe the faithful light
Send its faint flashes round the room,
And think some pleasures feebly bright
May lighten thus life's varied gloom.

I love the quiet midnight hour,
When care and hope and passion sleep,
And reason with untroubled power
Can her late vigils duly keep;

I love the night; and sooth to say,
Before the merry birds, that sing
In all the glare and noise of day,
Prefer the cricket's grating wing.

But see! pale Autumn strews her leaves,
Her withered leaves, o'er nature's grave,
While giant Winter she perceives
Dark rushing from his icy cave;

And in his train the sleety showers,
That beat upon the barren earth;
Thou, cricket, through these weary hours
Shall warm thee at my lonely hearth.

For the Monthly Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

Several susceptible youths of your city having been lately employed in making *woeful* ballads to their mistress' eye-brow, it entered my noddle to attempt something after their manner upon the interesting object of my tenderest attachments,....Dolly.

EPISTLE TO DOLLY.

FROM the dark gulf of comfortless despair
Oh suffer me, thou Empress of my soul,
With trembling hand and gizzard[*] titillating,
And heart that beats in unison with yours,
Like some twin cherry, by sweet zephyr mov'd,
Jostling in concert with its ruby brother,
To write to you, your sex's nonpareil.

....

---

[*] *Lately discovered.*

Those gooseberry eyes with emerald lightnings big,
Beaming sublime like barn-door in the morn,
Have burnt thy Neddy's heart just like, forsooth,
A crisp pork-chop upon a gridiron.
Oh, oh those pouting cherry lips of thine,
Where little cherubim and seraphim
Dance sportive to thy throat's wild melody:
Oh Dolly Dumpling, Dolly Dumpling oh!
Deign, deign to squint one ray of love divine
Into my tender bosom, greenlandiz'd
With cold disdain and Lapland iciness.
Paint to yourself my restless form laid prone
In sheets of linen or of cotton made,
There thinking on thy angel mien I toss in pain,
Turning now on this, and then on t'other side,
My throbbing heart the while with forceful beat
Striving to break my ribs and 'scape to thee.
So have I often seen some hapless goose,
In farmer's yard by cruel coop pent in,
Reckless of life beat hard against the slats,
And strive in vain to gain the gabbling flock.

How pleasant sitting at my cottage door
To view at eve the sun's declining ray,
Soft sliding through the mountain's blushy brow;
To hear the vacant laugh of honest steed,
The beehive's buzz, and courting pigeon's coo.
When toil is o'er, and stretch'd upon the turf,
How sweet to view our little playful lambs
Bound like grasshoppers in a field of hay;
And when our pretty little brindle cow,
Before the wicker gate with meekest look,
Shall ask our pliant hands her teats to squeeze,
How will your Neddy and his Dolly dear,
With each a milking-pail and each a stool,
Express the streams of sweet nectareous dew,
That Gods shall wish to be like *I* and *You*.

NEDDY NITRE.

For the Anthology.

LINES WRITTEN AT SEA AFTER A STORM.

THE faithless waves I'll trust no more,
Nor fickle winds, nor baleful skies;
Return me to my native shore,
My heart in every danger cries.

But praise to him, who rules the wave!
His hand, that wields the lightning's spear,
Outstretch'd has kindly been to save,
His ear has ever heard my prayer.

If thou restore me to my native land,
  To thee I will devote my days;
Withdraw not thy protecting hand,
  But guide me thro' temptation's maze.

N.

SELECTIONS.

[We anticipate the smiles and the thanks of our readers for the extracts, which follow from Montgomery's poems. Had it been in our power, the present bouquet should have been enlarged; but we love to be sparing of fragrance and flowers, and, surely, a daisy and snow-drop will suffice for October. There is a harmony in some of his lines, which is exquisite to a musical ear; and his figures and combinations indicate, that he is no copyist. His future productions will entitle him to an honourable rank. He has already written poems, which are consecrated to durable preservation in the brilliant and mighty mass of English poetry. But probably his prophecy is superiour to his fulfilment, and we are willing to believe, that his future greatness will advance beyond the just exactness of present anticipation. He is now a little Iulus; by and by he will reign on the throne of his forefathers. His general merit will be acknowledged by all; but difference of opinion begins with comparison. We do not pretend to decide his relative excellence, or the school, to which he belongs. We love to dwell on the purity of the 'snow-drop,' which is better than oxslips and wild thyme; and the 'field flower,' too, has perfume and tints, which are superiour to aromats and dyes from Ethiopia.]

A FIELD FLOWER;

On finding one in full bloom on Christmas Day, 1803.

THERE is a flower, a little flower,
With silver crest and golden eye,
That welcomes every changing hour,
And weathers every sky.

The prouder Beauties of the field,
In gay but quick succession shine,
Race after race their honours yield,
They flourish and decline.

But this small flower, to nature dear,
While moons and stars their courses run,
Wreathes the whole circle of the year,
Companion of the sun.

It smiles upon the lap of May,
To sultry August spreads its charms,
Lights pale October on his way,
And twines December's arms.

The purple heath and golden broom,
On moory mountains catch the gale,
O'er lawns the lily sheds perfume,
The violet in the vale.

But this bold floweret climbs the hill,
Hides in the forest, haunts the glen,
Plays on the margin of the rill,
Peeps round the fox's den.

Within the garden's cultured round,
It shares the sweet carnation's bed;
And blooms on consecrated ground
In honour of the dead.

The lambkin crops its crimson gem,
The wild-bee murmurs on its breast,
The blue-fly bends its pensile stem,
Light o'er the sky-lark's nest.

'Tis FLORA's page:——In every place,
In every season, fresh and fair,
It opens with perennial grace,
And blossoms every where.

On waste and woodland, rock and plain,
Its humble buds unheeded rise;
The Rose has but a summer-reign,
The DAISY never dies.

THE SNOW DROP.

WINTER! retire,
Thy reign is past;
Hoary Sire!
Yield the sceptre of thy sway,
Sound thy trumpet in the blast,
And call thy storms away;
Winter! retire;
Wherefore do thy wheels delay?
Mount the chariot of thine ire,
And quit the realms of day;

On thy state
Whirlwinds wait;
And blood-shot meteors lead thee
light;
Hence to dreary arctick regions;
Summon thy terrifick legions;
Hence to caves of northern night
Speed thy flight.

From halcyon seas
And purer skies,
O southern breeze!
Awake, arise:
Breath of heaven! benignly blow,
Melt the snow;
Breath of heaven! unchain the floods,
Warm the woods,
And make the mountains flow.

Auspicious to the Muse's prayer,
The freshening gale
Embalms the vale,
And breathes enchantment thro' the
air:
On its wing
Floats the Spring,
With glowing eye, and golden hair:
Dark before her Angel-form
She drives the Demon of the storm,
Like Gladness chasing Care.

Winter's gloomy night withdrawn,
Lo! the young romantick hours
Search the hill, the dale, the lawn,
To behold the SNOW-DROP white
Start to light,
And shine in FLORA's desert bowers,
Beneath the vernal dawn,
The Morning Star of Flowers!

O welcome to our Isle,
Thou Messenger of Peace!
At whose bewitching smile
The embattled tempests cease:
Emblem of Innocence and Truth!
First-born of Nature's womb,
When strong in renovated youth,
She bursts from Winter's tomb;
Thy Parent's eye hath shed
A precious dew-drop on thine head,
Frail as a mother's tear,
Upon her infant's face,
When ardent hope to tender fear,
And anxious love, gives place.
But lo! the dew-drop falls away,
The sun salutes thee with a ray,
Warm as a mother's kiss
Upon her infant's cheek,
When the heart bounds with bliss,
And joy that cannot speak!

——When I meet thee by the way,
Like a pretty, sportive child,
On the winter-wasted wild,
With thy darling breeze at play,
Opening to the radiant sky
All the sweetness of thine eye;
—Or bright with sunbeams, fresh with
showers,
O thou Fairy-Queen of flowers!
Watch thee o'er the plain advance
At the head of FLORA's dance;
Simple SNOW-DROP! then in thee
All thy sister train I see:
Every brilliant bud that blows,
From the blue-bell to the rose;
All the beauties that appear
On the bosom of the year;
All that wreathe the locks of Spring,
Summer's ardent breath perfume,
Or on the lap of Autumn bloom,
—All to thee their tribute bring,
Exhale their incense at thy shrine,
—Their hues, their odours all are thine!
For while thy humble form I view,
The Muse's keen prophetick sight
Brings fair Futurity to light,
And Fancy's magick makes the vision
true.

—There is a Winter in my soul,
The Winter of despair;
O when shall Spring its rage control?
When shall the SNOW-DROP blossom
there?
Cold gleams of comfort sometimes dart
A dawn of glory on my heart,
But quickly pass away:
Thus Northern-lights the gloom adorn,
And give the promise of a morn,
That never turns to day!

——But hark! methinks I hear
A small still whisper in mine ear:
"Rash Youth! repent,
"Afflictions from above
"Are Angels, sent
"On embassies of love.
"A fiery Legion, at thy birth,
"Of chastening Woes were given,
"To pluck thy flowers of Hope from
earth,
"And plant them high
"O'er yonder sky,
"Transform'd to stars,—and fix'd in
heaven."

THE BOSTON REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere vero assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——Pliny.

ARTICLE 54.

The Journal of Andrew Ellicott, late commissioner on behalf of the United States, during part of the year 1796, *the years* 1797, 1798, 1799, *and part of the year* 1800, *for determining the boundary between the United States and the possessions of his catholick majesty in America, containing occasional remarks on the situation, soil, rivers, natural productions, and diseases of the different countries on the Ohio, Mississippi, and gulf of Mexico; with six maps, comprehending the Ohio, the Mississippi from the mouth of the Ohio to the gulf of Mexico, the whole of W. Florida, and part of E. Florida. To which is added an appendix, containing all the astronomical observations made use of for determining the boundary, with many others made in different parts of the country for settling the geographical positions of some important points, with maps of the boundary on a large scale; likewise, a great number of thermometrical observations made at different times and places.* 1 *vol.* 4*to*. Philadelphia, Budd & Bartram. 1803.

Geography has been so assiduously cultivated of late years, that every work tending to its improvement has been received with more, than common interest. In the pursuit of this science, individuals have been tempted to brave the rigours of every clime, and their exertions have been protected by hostile governments. If then curiosity could be excited with regard to distant rivers, tracing their courses through savage deserts, with how much interest would they look forward to the attainment of an accurate knowledge of the Ohio and Mississippi, rivers extensive in themselves, and the only avenues to the ocean of a fertile and flourishing country on the former river, and of almost boundless and unknown regions on the latter? At the moment of publication, the Mississippi had acquired an additional claim to the consideration of the American publick, by the recent cession of Louisiana. Mr. Ellicott, clothed in an official character, possessed during a period of nearly four years the means of obtaining such information, as would fully have gratified the publick expectation. To show how far these advantages have been improved will be the object of the following review.

A journal soon becomes dull, where we are neither instructed by important facts, nor amused with interesting anecdotes or observations. The reader is soon fatigued with passing over bad roads and down shoal rivers, where he has nothing but these necessary concomitants, teazing accidents, or the state of the weather, to amuse him. Our author left Philadelphia, Sept. 16, 1796, and till his arrival at the mouth of the Ohio, the 19th of December following, we find no information of importance, or any observation, that can, for a moment, relieve the fatigue of the journey; and at the mouth of the Ohio, there is but a very short retrospect of the fine country he had passed. The Ohio, formed by the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela, according to Mr. E., is one of the finest rivers in the United States. He says, "The bottom and sides of the river are strong from Pittsburgh down to the low country, which is generally supposed to be about eight hundred miles. The strata of stone are horizontally disposed, and principally consist of either free stone or lime stone. This horizontal disposition of the strata of stone is observable thro' a very large extent of the United States." The flat lands on the Ohio are very fertile, but, in many places, not extensive. "A large proportion of the hills and mountains are unfit for agricultural purposes, being either too steep or faced with rocks. The hills and mountains on the east side of the river generally increase in magnitude, till they unite with the great ridge commonly called the Alleghany, but on the west side they decrease, till the country becomes almost a dead level." Besides the immediate necessaries of life, this country produces hemp, fruits, &c.; cordage, hard ware, glass, whiskey, and cider are manufactured; salted provisions also are made here; and the raw materials or the manufactured articles are sent to New Orleans, where they find a ready market, and on them, Mr. E. thinks, the inhabitants ought to receive bounties. To say any thing of the general impropriety of bounties, would be needless, as the absurdity of making the Atlantick states, who have large tracts of land still uncultivated, pay for the improvement of lands upon the Ohio, is too glaring. To the tax upon whiskey, or to the want of bounties, Mr. E. attributes the "turbulent and disorganizing character," generally given to the inhabitants. Although he says he is "far from justifying any opposition by force to laws constitutionally enacted;" yet he often apologises, and thinks that unless this tax should be repealed, the worst consequences would follow. The climate is good, and generally healthy, although bilious complaints are frequent at Cincinnati and Louisville. The Ohio in summer is shallow; but in the spring, vessels, built on the river, have thence sailed loaded for the West Indies. At the end of this account is a map of the Ohio, upon a large scale, in which those parts, which are not drawn from actual survey, are left unshaded, by which means we perceive at once how far the map is to be depended upon; and future travellers may know where their labours will be of most advantage. It is much to be regretted, that this excellent method is not more generally pursued.

The second chapter commences at the mouth of the Ohio, in Lat. 37° 0′ 23″ N. and Long. 88° 50′ 42″ W. from Greenwich. The cold was here so intense, that on the 22d of December, both the Ohio and Mississippi were completely frozen, and remained in that state four days, and the ice was not broken up in the former river till the 20 of January following. At this place were a number of Indians from the west side of the Mississippi, to whom a Mr.

Nolan (who was with Mr. E.) spoke in several Indian languages, but which they did not understand. He "then addressed them by signs, to which they immediately replied, and conversed for some time with apparent ease and satisfaction." He informed our author, that "this curious language was used by many nations on the west side of the Mississippi, who could only be understood by each other in that way, and that it was commonly made use of in transacting their national concerns." We are referred by Mr. E. to a paper, forwarded to the American Philosophical Society, by William Dunbar, Esq. for a more particular account of this language. In this chapter commences the official correspondence between Mr. Ellicott and the officers of the Spanish government, relative to the running of the boundary line, and the evacuation of the posts on the east side of the Mississippi, above the 31° of north latitude. This correspondence, with the observations upon it, occupies a large portion of the remainder of the volume; but the publick had before been made acquainted with the motives of the Spanish government, in a much clearer and more concise manner, from the reports of the secretary of state, which are accompanied by a part of these letters, as documents. If these reports, with a few explanatory remarks, or a brief statement of the business, had been published in the text, and the letters been added in an appendix, the reader would have been saved a vast deal of unnecessary labour. The inhabitants of the ceded territory had long been secretly murmuring at the delay of their becoming American citizens, when being excited by the hasty confinement of a turbulent and intoxicated preacher, their murmurs were converted into open opposition to the Spanish government. The Spanish officers inflamed the discontents by their violent conduct, and then shut themselves up in the fort, to avoid the fury they had excited, and the inhabitants embodied themselves into companies of militia. By the interference of Mr. Ellicott, a compromise was made, a committee was chosen by the people, who established a species of neutrality, which was sanctioned by the governour, who then issued his proclamation for the election of a permanent committee. "The election of this committee," Mr. E. says, "as was really intended on my part, put the finishing stroke to the Spanish authority and jurisdiction in this district." Mr. E. and the commander of the American troops were added as members to both these committees.

Our author thinks, that nothing new would be expected from him, respecting the Mississippi; but from his peculiar advantages he might have obtained much valuable information respecting this extensive river. By his account, we learn, that the confluence of the Ohio with the Mississippi is neither grand nor romantick. Those rivers unite their waters in a swamp from 36 to 45 miles wide; and which is several feet under water at every annual inundation, which is complete between the last of February and the middle of May, and generally subsides during the month of August. Its mean perpendicular height at Natchez is about fifty-five feet. He says, "in descending the river you meet with but little variety; a few of the sand bars and islands will give you a sample of the whole. When the water is low, you have high muddy banks, quick sands, and sand bars; and when full, you might almost as well be at sea; for days together you will float without meeting with any thing like soil in the river, and at the same time be environed by an uninhabitable and almost impenetrable wilderness." The river is crooked, and frequently changes its course, when the old bed is converted into a lake. Its banks likewise are liable to be undermined, and then become dangerous to boats, that may chance to approach them. The navigation between the mouth of the Ohio and Walnut hills (one of the posts afterwards delivered up by the Spanish) is rendered dangerous by "sawyers and planters;" the former are trees slightly confined to the bottom by their roots, which continue a vibrating motion with their tops; the latter are trees firmly fixed to the bottom, but by daylight are easily avoided. The banks are higher than the adjacent country, and in times of inundation a current sets into the woods with sufficient velocity to turn a mill. Its waters are discharged into the gulf of Mexico by several channels. The first branch is the Chafalia, which leaves the Mississippi just below the boundary. This branch is not navigable on account of a bridge, continually increasing in size, formed across it by drift logs, trees, &c.; but which might be removed. From other travellers we learn that this obstruction is common to many of the rivers in this part of the continent. There are no settlements of consequence between the Ohio and Natchez. This district of Natchez is uncommonly fertile; but as it is "high, hilly, and broken," Mr. E. fears the soil will be washed away, and the country become less productive. This remark, we own, struck us rather oddly. The climate is variable in winter, but hot in summer. The mean temperature of the best spring and well water in the latitude of 31° is 65° of Farenheit's scale, whereas it is only 51° in Pennsylvania.

Having spoken of the first settlement of the country, and of the animals, which differ but little from those of the middle states, our author proceeds to mention the impossibility of making a survey of the river, on or near the banks; and states the following ingenious method which he adopted to complete his map.

> The mouth of the Ohio, and town of Natchez, were taken as given points, both as to latitude and longitude. An excellent surveying compass, corrected for the variation of the needle, was used in taking the courses, which were entered in time, instead of space. Every day, when the sun shone at noon, his meridional altitude was taken in descending the river.
>
> The latitudes, determined by those observations, are entered on the chart of the river at the places where the observations were made; all the courses, between each two of those points, were protracted in time instead of space, that is, by calling the time, space; each set of courses were then expanded or contracted, so as to agree with the points of latitude, to which they belonged. From the number of latitudes taken, we expect that no part of the river will be found very erroneous in that respect; so much cannot be said in favour of the longitudes, except at the mouth of the Ohio and the town of Natchez.

Some points have been since corrected from the observations of Mr. Farrar.

We shall pass without observation the proceedings of the permanent committee, and the opposition they met with from faction, as they have long ceased to be interesting. The inhabitants of this district, according to our author, consist of persons of enterprize and ambition, of not a few who have fled from justice, or from creditors, and of American refugees; and few will dispute his conclusion, that such persons are unfit for a representative government.

Having first animadverted upon the administration of Mr. Adams, Mr. E. concludes his fifth chapter with mentioning the evacuation of the Spanish posts. In the succeeding, he commences the object of his mission, having, in concert with the Spanish commissioner, determined the 31° of north latitude on the Mississippi, from that point a due east course was run for the boundary line between the United States and Florida. We shall not follow our author through this rout; but shall only notice some of the principal facts, and the manner in which he proceeded. The difficulty of running the line is thus described.

> The first twenty miles of country, over which the line passed, is perhaps as fertile as any in the United States, and at the same time the most impenetrable, and could only be explored by using the cane, knife, and hatchet. The whole face of the country being covered with strong canes, which stood almost as close together as hemp stalks, and generally from twenty to thirty five feet high, and matted together by various species of vines, that connected them with the boughs of lofty timber, which was very abundant. The hills are numerous, short and steep; from these untoward circumstances we were scarcely ever able to open one fourth of a mile per day, and frequently much less.

Arrived at the Pearl river, our author determined to go to New Orleans to obtain the governour's formal approbation of what had been done, and to procure a vessel, in which he could ascend with his instruments and baggage the various rivers crossed by the boundary line. That New Orleans commands the trade of an immense country is known to every one; and our author justifies the preference given to the particular spot on the river, on which it is situated. The town is regular, but its streets narrow; in summer it is hot and disagreeable, but in winter, to use Mr. E.'s own words, "it then abounds with health, and a variety of well conducted amusements, which are encouraged and protected by the government."—Coasting vessels from the eastward go to New Orleans by lake Ponchartrain, and a canal, connecting that lake and the city, and thereby avoid the tedious navigation of the Mississippi. Mr. E. took the command himself of the vessel, in which he proceeded from New Orleans; because he thought it would be more economical, as the masters at that city were exorbitant in their demands. On each of the rivers the 31° of north latitude was determined from astronomical observations, and a surveyor was sent across to carry a guide line, which, when not found exact, was corrected back, and mounds of earth were erected at the end of each mile. The Pearl and Pascagola, the Mobile and Tensaw, formed by the Tombeckby and Alabama, the Cocnecuh and Chattahocha rivers, are all navigable above the boundary. Their banks are low, extremely fertile, and subject to annual inundations; but the high lands between them are unproductive. At the Chattahocha, Mr. E. was plundered by the Indians.—This river, from the 31° of north latitude, down to the mouth of Flint river, constitutes a part of the boundary line, which was thence to pass to the source of the St. Mary's, which then divides the two countries to the ocean. Our author's ser. journal from the Chattahocha to the St. Mary's is generally tedious and uninteresting. On his passage he observed a very singular appearance in the heavens, which he thus describes :—

> About two o'clock in the morning, I was called up to see the shooting of the stars, as it was vulgarly termed. The phenomenon was grand and awful ; the whole heavens appeared as if illuminated with sky rockets, flying in an infinity of directions, and I was in constant expectation of some of them falling on the vessel. They continued, till put out by the light of the sun, after day break. This phenomenon extended over a large portion of the West-India islands, and was observed as far north as St. Mary's, where it appeared as brilliant as with us. During this singular appearance, the wind shifted from the south to the north, and the thermometer, which had been at 86° for four days past, fell to 56°.

Mr. E. does not attempt to account for this appearance, but only mentions the theoretick conjecture of Lavoisier, that the air consists of different strata, as more satisfactory to him than any other. In favour of that theory, which attributes the Gulf Stream to a rotary motion in the Atlantick ocean, aided by the trade winds, he advances some plausible arguments. Our author thinks neither West or East Florida of much consequence in themselves. The former, except on the Mississippi, is but very thinly populated, and the coast of the latter is entirely uninhabited, and in possession of the privateersmen of the Bahama islands, who plunder it of its timber. West Florida is of consequence from the passage through it of the rivers mentioned above, which connect a fine and extensive tract of country within the United States with the ocean. East Florida derives its importance from being calculated to give security to the trade, that the atlantick states carry on with the western, and with the Gulf of Mexico. The source of the St. Mary's was determined by the commissioners to be somewhere in the Okofonoke swamp ; but as it was impossible to enter the swamp at that season, a mound was erected on the west side of the main outlet ; and it was agreed, that a line should be run from that mound in a north-east direction two miles, at the termination of which, it should meet the line from Flint river. Thus end Mr. E.'s official labours. To this account he adds a short list of plants, in a note to which, he confutes, by the mention of the Notes on Virginia, the opinion, which, he says, Mons. Buffon, and other celebrated European writers, have held, that American genius was inferiour to that of the old world.

The prevailing disorders of the country are fevers, by which our author lost several of his people at Natchez. He preserved himself from them by Dr. Rush's pills, till, when they were exhausted, he himself likewise was attacked. His journal by sea back to Philadelphia concludes the work. The appendix contains the state of the weather and thermometer for each day, the astronomical observations, and the calculations from those observations, by a reference to which their accuracy may be determined. It contains likewise maps of the boundary line on a large scale.

The maps, which are all well executed, and bear internal marks of accuracy, must be considered as valuable additions to our geography; but the work is neither interesting, nor does it contain much important information. In our passage down the Ohio, there are but few objects to detain our attention, and, launched into the Missisippi, we might almost as well be at sea. The delays of the dependent Spanish government had before been made publick, and had therefore lost much of their interest; and the petty disputes of party faction could never claim more, than a local consideration. The knowledge of the coast of Florida, and of the rivers which discharge themselves into the gulf of Mexico, is balanced by the tedious difficulties, which are always met with in penetrating uninhabited deserts, and by the barrenness of a sea-voyage. The comments are few, and those the remarks of a common mind. The language is frequently inelegant, and sometimes incorrect. The passages, quoted above, we believe to be fair specimens of the style, which never rises above plain narration. Upon the whole, we must conclude, that the work is very much inferiour to what it ought to have been; and that a small pamphlet, with the maps, which we must again call valuable, would have contained as much information as the quarto, through which we have laboured.

ART. 55.

A Treatise concerning Political Inquiry, and the liberty of the press. By Tunis Wortman, counsellor at law. New-York: George Forman. 1800.

WE never made a worse bargain with an honest man, than when we gave the bookseller one hundred cents, for Wortman's Political Inquiry; and yet, if nothing but the quantity of *brass* be regarded, we are hardly losers by the exchange. Mr. Wortman's book has all the the properties of a cent, except its currency, and its value. It has as dull a countenance, and as drossy and cumbrous a nature. One can hardly be persuaded to read the first paragraph of a volume of 300 pages, when the preface contains an insolent boast, under the name of an apology, that the work is produced in a few idle hours, without care or attention. "It is but justice," says Mr. W. "to observe, that the following pages have only occupied the leisure moments of less than four months, and been written amidst the constant interruption of business." There was no necessity for this haste—no eager impatience of the publick drove Mr. W. to the press. It is effrontery to introduce to the world, under the imposing title of a "Political Inquiry," a volume, composed in a time almost too short for an amanuensis to copy its pages. The affectation of writing quick is contemptible; yet in this country it too frequently supplies the ambition of writing *well.* The *calamus currens* is for clerks and secretaries, not for those who would instruct or inform mankind. But, perhaps, it is well that Mr. W. published thus hastily, for if he had taken longer time, there is reason to fear, that, instead of writing *better*, he would have written *more.*

It is difficult to say what Mr. W.'s book is, or to what class of productions it belongs. This would be,

> "to give to airy nothing
> A local habitation and a name."

Its most striking characteristick is the absence of ideas. The reader wades through it, meeting only at great intervals with a sentiment, which deserves either censure or approbation. It is a vast Serbonian bog, where there is nothing to bear up his steps. Every thing sinks beneath him, nor can the eye glance far enough to behold an inch of solid ground, on which to rest its hopes. Declamation, without genius or spirit, false reasoning, without ingenuity enough to be called sophistry, and an inveterate hostility to the rules of grammar and composition, are principal features in this performance. In the very first paragraph he valorously takes up arms against the "monarchick sway" of grammar. "We *will* [shall] neither be able to reflect with accuracy," &c.

In the same page he says, "Political institution should *emphatically* be considered as that science, which proposes for its object the promotion of general felicity."—Words may be *emphatically* spoken, and perhaps, by a figure, *emphatically* written, but who ever heard of *considering*, or deliberating on a subject *emphatically ?*—Yet, as Mr. W. has no emphasis in his book, perhaps we ought to indulge him in claiming it for his brain.

Farther on, he says, "civil society, as well as her *sister sciences*" ! &c.

We open the book, by accident, at the 65th page, and from that, and those immediately following, will transcribe a few paragraphs, as specimens of Mr. W.'s style and sentiments. The first sentence which meets our eye is this. Speaking of poetry and metaphysicks, he observes, "such are the studies which *elude* the utmost *profundity* of intellect" ! He proceeds. "Not so with rational politicks. Every truth is luminous; every principle is clear, perspicuous, and determinable; its doctrines are established in the common sentiments and feelings of mankind; its positions are maintained and enforced by universal experience."

Does not Mr. W. know that political science has, more than any other, divided the opinions of mankind, and that, after a discussion of many centuries, very few principles are yet settled ? What "position" of politicks is maintained by universal experience ? Can he name one, that has been received by the one millionth part of the population of the world since the creation ?

In page 67 are these shrewd remarks. "Man, therefore, is the only actor upon whatever theatre human conduct is destined to become exhibited. To whatever object our imagination is extended, to the statesman in the cabinet, the philosopher in his closet, or the hero in the field; wherever we direct our contemplation, to battles and to sieges, negociations or hostility, treaties of peace, convention of commerce, or declaration of war; it is *man* that acts and suffers."

Wonderful counsellor ! Have you then discovered that *human* beings alone can be the authors of *human* actions ?

Page 68. "The duties attached to the intercourse of nations and individuals, arise from the *identical fountain of obligation*, and must therefore be, in a great measure, familiar to every understanding."

Page 69. "Without pretensions to superiour discernment, every person can as easily perceive what conduct in one nation violates the rights, and operates to the detriment of another, or what acts of a government infallibly terminate in personal injury and oppression. Hence then it is an obvious position, that every intelligent being must necessarily possess a sufficient standard of political discrimination. Can the obstinacy of scepticism demand still farther illustration ?" No, no, illustrious Tunis, the "obstinacy of scepticism" is a weak, shivering victim beneath the scymeter of such logick. It doubts of nothing while you reason, although you should attempt to prove the muddiness of your own brain.

In page 171 are the following sentiments, which come 'fresh and strong' from the school of Godwin. "It has been rendered sufficiently plain, that a virtuous government cannot become materially injured by misrepresentation ; for the most acrimonious and violent invectives will be the most open to detection. Why then should punishment be inflicted ? Will the confinement of my body within a prison, or the removal of my property to the publick treasury, render me a better man ? Will such severity be calculated to conciliate my affections towards the government ? or will it be likely to inspire me with lasting resentment ? If I have been guilty of malicious detraction, let corroding Envy, sickening Jealousy, and vulture passions torture and prey upon my heart. Believe me, I should be punished by misery more agravated, than the horrours of an inquisition."

This is genuine. The disciple has excelled the master. These sentiments are too good to die with a first reading. Let us view them in another shape. The doctrines, which Tunis so ingeniously applies to cases of malicious libel, must be equally applicable to other transgressions of the law. On murder, for instance, he would reason in the same way. "It has been rendered sufficiently plain, that society cannot be materially injured by the death of one individual : for the most barbarous and violent deeds will be the most open to detection. Why then should punishment be inflicted on a murderer ? Will the confinement of my body within a prison, will chains or the gallows render me a better man ? Will such severity be calculated to conciliate my affections towards society ? or will it be likely to inspire me with lasting resentment ? If I have been guilty of wilful murder, let corroding Envy, sickening Jealousy, and vulture passions torture and prey upon my heart. Believe me, I should be punished by misery more aggravated, than all the horrours of hemp" ! ! !

Such are the torrents of nonsense, which a man, who calls himself a *counsellor*, is capable of pouring forth, as a subject closely connected with his professional studies.

Believe me, Mr. Counsellor, if these be your sentiments, the cap and bells would become you more than the long robe, and you would shew better in Bedlam, than the Forum.

ART. 56.

The Lay of the Last Minstrel, a *poem*, by *Walter Scott*, *Esq.*—Hugh Maxwell, Philadelphia. 12mo. 1805.

THIS work is neatly and accurately re-printed, and is a good specimen of the rapid progress, which this country is making towards typographical excellence.

European Reviewers have so justly displayed the beauties, and appreciated the merits of this interesting composition, that we have little, if any thing, to add to their remarks; but we cordially join them in praising a poem, which has afforded us exquisite pleasure, and which "has raised its author to a permanent rank among the classical poets of his country."

In towns, where trade occupies every thought, at all times and seasons, and in every company monopolizes the greatest share of conversation; where its maxims and spirit pervade every class of society, and would confine all mental exertion within its own contracted sphere; it must be peculiarly gratifying to the few, whose faculties are not shackled and benumbed, to read of other times, of other manners, of other men; with different objects in view, with more ardent, as well as nobler passions; and whose vices, while they neither exceeded in number or enormity those of later times, were balanced by many virtues; among which unbounded generosity, steady friendship, faithful love, and heroick valour, shone conspicuous. It is therefore with great satisfaction, that we strongly recommend, to the rising generation particularly, this vivid effort of genius and learning; but as it is probable more attention will be paid to *samples*, than to mere recommendation, we shall select a few specimens, and vouch for the goodness of the whole.

The introduction is poetical and interesting in the highest degree. An aged Minstrel, wandering near the Castle of Branksome, was admitted by the Dutchess of Buccleugh, and, after being hospitably treated, to gratify her and her ladies, he sings to his harp a tale of arms and chivalry, in which the names and actions of her ancestors are commemorated.

Amid the strings his fingers strayed,
And an uncertain warbling made.—
And oft he shook his hoary head.
But when he caught the measure wild,
The old man raised his face, and smiled,
And lightened up his faded eye,
With all a poet's ecstacy!
In varying cadence, soft or strong,
He swept the sounding chords along;
The present scene, the future lot,
His toils, his wants, were all forgot;
Cold diffidence, and age's frost,
In the full tide of song were lost.
Each blank, in faithless memory void,
The poet's glowing thought supplied;
And, while his harp responsive rung,
'Twas thus the LATEST MINSTREL sung. *P.* 12.

Those, who have any relish for the beautiful and sublime, will be charmed with his description of Melrose abbey.

If thou wouldst view fair Melrose aright,
Go visit it by the pale moon-light;
For the gay beams of lightsome day
Gild, but to flout, the ruins gray.
When the broken arches are black in night,
And each shafted oriel glimmers white;
When the cold light's uncertain shower
Streams on the ruined central tower;
When buttress and buttress, alternately,
Seem framed of ebon and ivory;
When silver edges the imagery,
And the scrolls that teach thee to live and die;
When distant Tweed is heard to rave,
And the owlet to hoot o'er the dead man's grave;
Then go—but go alone the while—
Then view Saint David's ruined pile,
And, home returning, soothly swear,
Was never scene so sad and fair!
P. 33.

But the imagery and language in the following pages are awful and terrifick in the extreme, when William of Deloraine, who was sent to the monk of St. Mary's aisle, opens the tomb of the celebrated Michael Scot, to take from thence his book of magick.

The pillared arches were over their head,
And beneath their feet were the bones of the dead.—

—Still spoke the monk, when the bell tolled one !—
I tell you that a braver man
Than William of Deloraine, good at need,
Against a foe ne'er spurred a steed !
Yet somewhat was he chilled with dread,
And his hair did bristle upon his head.

"Lo, warrior ! now the cross of red
Points to the grave of the mighty dead;
Within it burns a wonderous light
To chase the spirits that love the night:
That lamp shall burn unquenchably,
Until the eternal doom shall be."
Slow moved the monk to the broad flag-stone,
Which the bloody cross was traced upon ;
He pointed to a secret nook ;
A bar from thence the warrior took ;
And the monk made a sign with his withered hand,
The grave's huge portal to expand.

With beating heart, to the task he went ;
His sinewy frame o'er the grave-stone bent ;
With bar of iron heaved amain,
Till the toil-drops fell from his brows like rain.
It was by dint of passing strength,
That he moved the massy stone at length.
I would you had been there to see,
How the light broke forth so gloriously;
Streamed upward to the chancel roof,
And through the galleries far aloof!
No earthly flame blazed e'er so bright:
It shone like heaven's own blessed light;
And issuing from the tomb,
Shewed the monk's cowl, and visage pale ;
Danced on the dark-brow'd warrior's mail,
And kissed his waving plume.

Before their eyes the wizard lay,
As if he had not been dead a day :
His hoary head in silver rolled,
He seemed some seventy winters old ;
A palmer's amice wrapped him round,
With a wrought Spanish baldric bound,
Like a pilgrim from beyond the sea :
His left hand held his book of might ;
A silver cross was in his right :
The lamp was placed beside his knee :
High and majestick was his look,
At which the fellest fiends had shook ;
And all unruffled was his face—
They trusted his soul had gotten grace.
P. 43—46.

After this scene of horrour, the imagination is gradually composed, and soothed with the tenderness of love and beauty. Where are two figures to be found more happily designed, and finely contrasted, than Margaret of Branksome, and "Baron Henry, her own true knight" ?

A fairer pair were never seen
To meet beneath the hawthorn green.
He was stately and young and tall ;
Dreaded in battle, and loved in hall :
And she, when love, scarce told, scarce hid,
Lent to her cheek a livelier red ;
When the half sigh her swelling breast
Against the silken ribband pressed ;
When her blue eyes their secret told,
Though shaded by her locks of gold,—
Where would you find the peerless fair
With Margaret of Branksome might compare ! *P.* 48.

When arrived at this part of his lay, the old Minstrel breaks off, and observing the interest he had excited in female bosoms, he says,

And now fair dames, methinks I see,
You listen to my minstrelsy ;
Your waving locks ye backward throw,
And sidelong bend your necks of snow.

—Ye ween to hear a tender tale——

Alas ! fair dames your hopes are vain !
My harp has lost the enchanting strain :
Its lightness would my age reprove ;
My hairs are gray, my limbs are old,
My heart is dead, my veins are cold—
I may not, must not, sing of love.
P. 49.

—But after resting himself, and quaffing heartily some generous wine, his spirits were so exhilirated that he begins the next canto in the following animated strain.

And said I that my limbs were old;
And said I that my blood was cold,
And that my kindly fire was fled,
And my poor withered heart was dead,
And that I might not sing of love?—
How could I, to the dearest theme,
That ever warmed a minstrel's dream,
So foul, so false, a recreant prove!
How could I name love's very name,
Nor wake my harp to notes of flame!

In peace, Love tunes the shepherd's reed;
In war, he mounts the warrior's steed;
In halls, in gay attire is seen;
In hamlets, dances on the green.
Love rules the court, the camp, the grove,
And men below, and saints above;
For love is heaven, and heaven is love.
P. 54.

While upon this subject, we cannot resist transcribing these beautiful lines.

—True love's the gift which God has given
To man alone beneath the heaven.
It is not Fantasy's hot fire,
Whose wishes, soon as granted, fly;
It liveth not in fierce desire,
In dead desire it doth not die;
It is the secret sympathy,
The silver chord, the silken tie,
Which heart to heart, and mind to mind
In body and in soul can bind.

Lest attention should tire or abate, the poet frequently varies his measure, but it is always sweet and melodious, judiciously adapted to the different parts of his poem, and shews, that though possessing the phrenzy of a poet, he has not neglected the subordinate art of versification. Though his powers never appear to flagg, yet at the beginning of every canto he seems to be newly invigorated and transported with fresh enthusiasm; either bursting upon us with wild abruptness, or stealing on the ear in strains of melting tenderness. At the conclusion of the third, something, which the ladies observed, recals to the Minstrel's memory the fate of his only son, who gloriously fell in battle, and he begins the fourth in such strains of simple and genuine pathos, as powerfully awaken the reader's sympathy.

Sweet Teviot! on thy silver tide,
The glaring bale-fires blaze no more;
No longer steel-clad warriors ride
Along thy wild and willowed shore;
Where'er thou wind'st by dale or hill,
All, all is peaceful, all is still,
As if thy waves, since Time was born,
Since first they rolled their way to Tweed,
Had only heard the shepherd's reed,
Nor started at the bugle-horn.

Unlike the tide of human time,
Which though it change in ceaseless flow,
Retains each grief, retains each crime,
Its earliest course was doomed to know;
And, darker as it downward bears,
Is stained with past and present tears.
Low as that tide has ebbed with me,
It still reflects to memory's eye
The hour my brave, my only boy,
Fell by the side of great Dundee.
Why, when the volleying musket played
Against the bloody Highland blade,
Why was not I beside him laid—
Enough—he died the death of fame;
Enough—he died with conquering Græme.
P. 76.

The sixth canto commences with the indignant effusions of real patriotism, which every true lover of his country will repeat with pride and pleasure, but which can find nothing congenial in the bosoms of the *universal philanthropists* of the present day, who call all those countries theirs, in which their own chimerical notions of liberty have turned the people's brains with specious and mischievous absurdity.

Breathes there the man, with soul so
dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own my native land?
Whose heart hath ne'er within him
burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned,
From wandering on a foreign strand!
If such there breathe, go, mark him
well;
For him no minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim;
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentered all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung.

After introducing the ballads of three different bards, he finely concludes with the following hymn for the dead.

That day of wrath, that dreadful day,
When heaven and earth shall pass away,
What power shall be the sinners stay?
How shall he meet that dreadful day?
When, shrivelling like a parched scroll,
The flaming heavens together roll;
When louder yet, and yet more dread,
Swells the high trump, that wakes the
dead;
O! on that day, that wrathful day,
When man to judgment wakes from
clay,
Be thou the trembling sinner's stay,
Though heaven and earth shall pass
away! P. 149.

We pretend not to say we have selected the most beautiful passages of this delightful poem, but they struck us as possessing great force and beauty; nor do we fear, that those, who can feel with the poet, will think our quotations too long, or numerous. If our admiration, warmly expressed, can induce many to read the book, it may kindle the pure and ardent flame of native genius in bosoms, where the spark now lies dormant; and the view of its rare excellence may repress the presumption of obtrusive poetasters, who would not pester the publick with so many vapid rhymes, clumsily strung together, did they not mistake pertness and self-conceit for brilliant talents and uncommon powers.

ART. 57.

The Dramatick Works of William Dunlap, in ten volumes, vol. I. containing—the Father of an only Child, Leicester, Fontainville Abbey, Darby's Return. Philadelphia, printed by T. & G. Palmer, 116, High-street. 1806.

THIS volume contains what the author seems to imagine *dramatick* performances; but, in truth, it affords only four farragos of nonsense, in which the most essential laws of the drama are altogether violated, and the rules of composition disregarded. In these four "plays" *for the stage*, made worthy of it by "eighteen years" "revision and attachment," taste, wit, and sentiment take no part; they do not once enter during their whole performance—for Mr. Dunlap has very ingeniously, and in a manner peculiar to himself, *kept them behind the scenes.*

It might seem unjust to condemn this volume altogether; and no doubt it will appear so, particularly to the author, who "cannot see the propriety of condemning *en masse*," and conjectures, that "his readers may perhaps be tempted to lament, that he has soared so often into the heaven of invention." But we believe, it would be more unjust to weary our readers, by leading their attention through Mr. Dunlap's endless labyrinths of nonsense. If it can be any satisfaction for him to know, that we have waded through his work, he is assured of it; and we mention it particularly, because it is probable he will never hear the like again. We believe, that we have consulted his interest, when we condemn it *en masse*; for, as he threatens the publick with ten volumes, an analysis of the first would never excite a curiosity to behold its brethren.

It is absolutely scandalous to the republick of letters, that works like this should be suffered to issue from the press. It reflects no credit on Mr. D. that, "after eighteen years attachment to the drama, and having revised these plays to the best of his abilities," he should now intrude them, unmeaning as they are, upon the patronage of the publick. The facility of publication in this country and elsewhere, by which the shelves of the booksellers are crowded with *double tiers*, is one of the causes, which increase the obscurity of works of merit.

We have considered this work as to its stage effect and as to its closet effect, and the only effect, which it seems likely to produce, is, that it may make "the unwary laugh," "but it will make the judicious grieve"; and we are as fully persuaded, that every intelligent reader, who will take upon himself the task of a Reviewer and put this decision to the proof, will acquiesce in the judgment. After he has become acquainted with the "Father of an only Child," the horrours of "Leicester," passed through "Fontainville Abbey," and sees "Darby's Return," he will most devoutly wish, that some proper authority would or could interpose a power to stop the swelling torrent of the press. But alas!

> Rusticus expectat, dum defluat amnis; at ille
> Labitur et labetur, in omne volubilis ævum.

There is one distinction, which we have never before met with, and which may not be uninteresting to our agricultural friends. It is in act II. sc. 1. of "The Father of an only Child"; (by the by, we are very glad this family was no larger.) *Susannah*, in showing *Pistoon* the gardens, tells him, "there's "pumpkins, potatoes, and turnips, "and apples and ingons and sich "like, and that's round sace; and "there's carrots, and cowcumbers, "parsnups, and beets and sich; and "that's long sace. But whether "mortars grow round or long, "when you plant them in a tulip "bed, darn me if I know."

Ten volumes!!! We hope Mr. Dunlap will reconsider this matter.

The work is adorned with a portrait of Mrs. Wignall, painted by W. Dunlap and engraved by D. Edwin.

ART. 98.

An Address to the Merrimack Humane Society, Sept. 2, 1806. By Samuel Cary, A. B. 8vo. pp. 31. Newburyport, Blunt.

After a pertinent introduction, the orator deviates from the general topick of benevolence to confine himself to the precise objects of the institution. He then dilates upon the modes of excitement in cases of apparent death; bleeding, which was long approved in Holland, and the application of the electrick fluid, which has prevailed in England. To many of the audience this might have seemed parade; and the speaker unhappily encourages the opinion, when he says, "I have taken the liberty to make (of making) these general observations, gentlemen, with no hope of communicating any new information." On the assignment of rewards the remarks are judicious; and against the plunderers of the beach huts of the society they rise to animation. But the general tenour of the address is even and stately. The diction is never vulgar, and seldom easy. We find no original thought to engage us; no artful combination of old ones to amuse or to surprise. There is little to censure; much to approve; but nothing to admire.

Pompous language in description of humble things may be stared at awhile; but when it is understood it becomes ridiculous. *Professus grandia, turget.* A sneer involuntarily rises at the affectation of an unusual phrase in such a manner as the following. "The leading object of the society is the recovery of persons apparently dead, whether this appearance is (be) occasioned by submersion, suffocation by noxious vapours, or *the cord*," &c. "For this purpose, it is common to apply friction, *the feather*, and powerful salts." Is any particular feather intended, or is the phrase adopted to dignify the object? "The first object of the operator is to employ blankets, the heat of a living body, *the fire*, or the warm bath." "It is therefore supposed, that it possesses the power of renewing the *customary* actions of the system." Custom implies volition. These, and other examples, resemble the strut of youthful imbecility, imitating the dignified gait, but regardless of the easy motions, of manhood.

The idea in the author's mind is not always conveyed with dignity or perspicuity. "No tongue indeed can convey to the understanding the satisfaction, enjoyed by the friends of humanity, when they have delivered an *apparently lifeless corpse, alive and intelligent*, to the embraces," &c. "But this pleasure, *from its distance*, and refined nature, often loses its influence." *Brevis esse laboro.*

These are minor faults, and may pass unobserved by the majority of readers in a hasty perusal; but the author, we presume, wishes to stand the scrutiny of the observing, and to receive the approbation of the learned.

In the ode to Humanity, for 1806, is a line of unjustifiable boldness.

Thou canst restore the mystick flame,
And aid the efforts of a God.

ART. 59.

Home. A poem. 12*mo. pp.* 144. Boston, printed for S. H. Parker, 1806. E. Lincoln, printer.

If there be one theme more favourable for poetry than another, it is this perhaps, which our author has selected. At the mention of home, a thousand images, congenial to the muse, possess the fancy at once, and we are in greater danger of being distracted by the fulness of matter, which the subject presents, than troubled to conceive about what we shall write. The winter fire-side circle, convened by the inclemency of the season, all the domestick amusements and duties that grow out of the year, the pastimes of childhood, the occupations of age, the intercourse of friends, the attachments of kindred, the history of love, with imincidents and sentiments in endless variety, are here exhibited to the muse, and invite her to sing. To the poet in particular the subject must be doubly propitious, as we all have a gift at describing pleasures that are removed from our reach, and a propensity to praise what we should like to attain.

Home is the resort
Of love, of joy, of peace and plenty, where,
Supporting and supported, polish'd friends
And dear relations mingle into bliss.
Thomson.

With a field so extensive before him, enlivened with every flower that can gratify sense, it is natural to suppose, that our author would have gathered a bouquet not unworthy to be laid at the feet of the *Nine*. But in examining his selections, we have met with what is common to other personages than criticks...the disappointment which follows expectations too exalted. We do not deny that he has collected some gems, which are delicately marked and prettily coloured, but he has fewer rose-buds than leaves, and more knot-grass than pinks. He does not present us with a remembrance to be worn in our bosoms on a sabbath or *gala*, though he affords something perhaps medicinal, and something that is savoury.

In one of his notes, our *unknown* observes, that dissonant rhymes may be occasionally employed with happy effect; and quotes Pope and Gray for the correctness of the remark. Whether or not poetry contribute to her harmony, by interrupting in this way the chime of her bells, as all ears are not constructed on a similar model, we leave it to our readers to determine for themselves. We would remind the prosodian, however, that Swift regretted, that he had not inspected the translation of the Iliad before it was committed to press, because he wished to have had corrected some unsociable rhymes, which he considered as offensive to cultivated tympanums. What the censor of Homer would have said to our poem, whose author appears, in his critical notices, to speak one word for rhyme, and a couple for himself, will be readily imagined, when we quote concords like the following. *Revive, live; tie, joy; blooms, comes; voice, joys; break, cheek; heard, appear'd; flood, good; roam, home; foam, home; bloom, home;* and many more, that are as distant from chimes as a sheep-bell and cymbal. Had *home*, this unhappy text-word of the poet, which continually falls on the end of a line, by a small metrical manœuvre, been otherwise disposed of, great pains might have been saved, and less melody murdered. It is at best but a bad part of speech to ring the changes upon, and would have answered much better differently placed in a couplet.

Another ground of objection against our poet is, he weakens his versification with a profusion of expletives.

Ere while less sweet, they now delight the eye.
My heart, that, when the tempest, echoing, past.
Here not a sound is heard but boasts a charm.

and he has too much to say about *Edwin* and *Emma*; who have sustained, poor unfortunates! the burden of song for rather more than a century, and were deserving before the date of this performance of a quiet interment in the tomb of the Capulets.

But to sprinkle a little praise upon this severity of remark, for we wish not to be cruel where we cannot be kind, we acknowledge the poem is very far from contemptible; it possesses some passages that may be read with a degree of complacency, and whatever it possesses is very evidently its own. To prove that we are sincere, we give the following selection.

Soon the favouring breeze inspires
The swelling sails no more, but sad retires;
While rising fierce, with terrors all his own,
The scowling south-wind mounts his cloudy throne;
Bids his black squadrons darken all the pole,
And fires descend, and deep-toned thunders roll.

The attendants on wealth and power, too, are decently conceived, and tolerably drawn.

Dark, as yon clouds o'er Pentland's hills that lower,
Appear the legions guarding wealth and power.
Stern on their frontiers, pale Suspicions keep
Relentless watch, that knows not rest or sleep.
There Danger joys his fiery bands to form,
His glance the flash of heaven, his step the storm;
There Hate, whose day-dreams scenes of blood defile;
Deceit, who wears a dagger and a smile;
And fierce Destruction, opening from beneath
The mine, in whose dark chambers revels death.

The stanzas on the *Tomb of my Fathers*, *Victory*, and *To the Evening Star*, have nothing remarkable in thought or expression; and might be spared in a bunch, without loss or regret. The fact is, poetry has no middle character; it must be either decidedly good, or decidedly bad; middling verse is middling nonsense!

This work is neatly executed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR OCTOBER.

Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

No. 1. Vol. I. of Flora Carolinæensis; or, A Historical, Medical, and Economical Display of the Vegetable Kingdom, according to the Linnæan or sexual system of Botany. Being a collection or compilation of the various plants hitherto discovered and made known by the several authors on Botany, &c. By John L. E. W. Shecut. 8vo. pp.88. This work will consist of at least 12 numbers, of about 80 or 90 pages each, which will form two hexades, that may be bound in two octavo volumes. Price to subscribers 50 cents, each number. Charleston, S. C. printed for the author by John Hoff.

Reports of Cases, argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Errours of the state of Connecticut, in the years 1802, 1803, and 1804. By Thomas Day, counsellor at law. Vol. I. 8vo. $3 calf. Hartford, Conn. Hudson & Goodwin.

Means of preserving health, and preventing diseases: Founded principally on an attention to air and climate, drink, food, sleep, exercise, clothing, passions of the mind, and retentions and excretions. With an appendix, containing observations on bathing, cleanliness, ventilation, and medical electricity, and on the abuse of medicine. Enriched with apposite extracts from the best authors. Designed not merely for physicians, but for the information of others. To which is annexed, a glossary of the technical terms contained in the work. By Shadrach Ricketson, physician in New-York. New-York, Collins, Perkins & Co.

Lectures on Natural and Experimental Philosophy, considered in its present state of improvement; describing, in a familiar and easy manner, the principal phenomena of nature; and shewing that they are cooperate in displaying the goodness, wisdom, and power of God. By the late George Adams, mathematical instrument maker to his majesty, &c. In four volumes. Illustrated with 43 large copperplates, elegantly engraved. This American edition printed from the last London edition, edited by Wm. Jones, is carefully revised and corrected by Robert Patterson, professor of mathematicks and teacher of natural philosophy, in the university of Pennsylvania. Vol. I. To this volume is subjoined, by the American editor, A brief outline or compendious system of modern chemistry: compiled from the latest publications on that subject. Price to subscribers $11,50 the set. Philadelphia, Woodward.

Travels in Louisiana and the Floridas, in the year 1802, giving a correct picture of those countries. Translated from the French, with notes, &c. By John Davis. 12mo. pp. 182. New-York: Printed by and for I. Riley & Co.

Columbian Eloquence; being the speeches of the most celebrated American orators, as delivered in the late trial of the Hon. Samuel Chase, before the senate of the United States. 3 vols. 12mo. Price $1,50. Baltimore.

Discoveries made in exploring the Missouri, Red, and Washita rivers, and countries adjacent, by Captains Lewis and Clarke, Dr. Sibley, Wm. Dunbar, Esq. and Dr. Hunter; with an appendix, by Mr. Dunbar, not before published, containing list of stages and distances on the Red and Washita rivers to the Hot Springs; lists of the most obvious vegetable productions of the Washita country, which are indigenous or growing without culivation; notice of certain vegetables, part of which are supposed to be new; of the medical properties of the salt springs, &c. 8vo. Natchez, Louisiana.

Sermons to young people; preached A. D. 1803, 1804, on the following subjects: faith and practice; inquiry concerning eternal life; religion our own choice; indecision in religion; the principle of virtue; God's glory man's end and happiness; encouragement to early seeking; self-dedication; prayer; observation of the Lord's day; the excellence of religion; the happiness of life; the standard of honour; good company recommended; caution against bad company; caution against bad books; frugality; dissipation; the instability of life; procrastination; redemption of time; reflections on death; judgment; the person and character of the judge; the state of those who die in sin; the future blessedness of the righteous. To which are added, prayers for young families. Also, sermons, 1. on religious education; 2. answer to the objection, that education in religion shackles the mind; 3. reflections of the aged on the early choice of religion. By James Dana, D. D. New Haven. Increase Cooke. 1806. pp. 502.

The Clergyman's Companion, containing the official offices of the Protestant Episcopal Church, used by the clergy of the said church in the discharge of their parochial rites. To which are added, Extracts from the writings of distinguished divines on the qualifications and duties of the clerical office. 12mo. Price $1,25. New-York, Peter A. Mesier.

A Chart, entitled, Tables for computing the effect of refraction on lunar distances. Published by Peter Delamar, No. 81, North Second Street, Philadelphia.

Psalmodist's Assistant: containing an original composition of Psalm and Hymn Tunes; together with a number of favourite pieces from different authors. To which is prefixed, An Introduction to the Grounds of Musick. By Abijah Forbush. Price 62½ cents. Boston, Manning & Loring.

A favourite selection of musick, adapted to the Piano Forte; consisting of the newest and most fashionable songs, airs, marches, &c. comick and sentimental. Designed for practitioners. By O. Shaw and H. Mann. $1. Dedham, H. Mann.

A Collection of Divine Musick, consisting of Psalms, Hymns, Chants, and Anthems, for one, two, three, and four voices, with accompaniments for the organ and piano forte. pp. 120. Price $1,75. Philadelphia, John Aitken.

The American Reader; consisting of a selection of familiar, instructive, and entertaining stories. By Herman

Daggett, A. M. Price 37 cts. Sag-Harbour, N.Y. Alden Spooner.

A Treatise on the Courts for the trial of small causes, held by justices of the peace in the state of New Jersey. By William Sandford Pennington, Esq. one of the justices of the supreme court of that state. 12mo. pp. 300. Newark, N. J. Tuttle & Co.

An Inquiry into the effects of our foreign carrying trade upon the agriculture, population, and morals of the people. By Columella. Price 37 cts. New-York, Ezra Sargent.

Experience, or, Folly as it Flies. A poem, delivered at Cambridge, on the anniversary of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, August 8, 1806. By Benjamin Whitwell. 8vo. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

An oration on Eloquence, delivered at Burlington, Ver. May 12, 1806, on the anniversary of the Phi, Sigma, Nu Society, in Burlington College. By Gardner Child, member of the senior class. 8vo. Price 25 cts. Burlington, Greenleaf & Mills.

A discourse delivered at the dedication of the new academy in Fryeburg. June 4, 1806. By Rev. Nathaniel Porter, A. M. Published at the request of the trustees. Portland, B. Wait. 8vo.

Discourses on the sovereign and universal agency of God, in nature and grace. By the Rev. Robert M'Dowall, minister of the Reformed Dutch church in Ernest-town, Upper Canada. Webster and Shinner. 1806.

Discourse at a publice meeting of a number of Singers, who were improving themselves in church musick. By Nathaniel Emmons, D. D. Providence, R. I. David Hawkins, jun.

A sermon, delivered at New-Boston, N. H. Feb. 26, 1806, at the ordination of Rev. Ephraim P. Bradford, to the pastoral care of the Presbyterian church and society in that place. By Jesse Appleton, Congregational minister in Hampton. 8vo. Amherst, J. Cushing.

A discourse delivered before the members of the Portsmouth Female Asylum, at a third service, on the Sabbath, Aug. 10, 1806. By J. Appleton. Portsmouth, S. Whidden.

A Wreath for the Rev. Daniel Dow, pastor of a church in Thompson, Con. on the publication of his Familiar Letters, in answer to the Rev. John Sherman's treatise of one God in one person only, &c. By A. O. F. Utica, Merrel and Seward.

A sermon preached at the ordination of the Rev. Nathan Waldo, A. B. in Williamstown, Vt. Feb. 26, 1806. By Elijah Parish, A. M. pastor of the church in Byefield, Mass. Hanover, N. H. Moses Davis. pp. 16.

The Sixth of August, or the Litchfield Festival. An address to the people of Connecticut. Hudson & Goodwin. Sept. 1806.

An American Primer; including the Wesminster Assembly's Shorter Catechism, divided into forty-six lessons, with contents, notes, and hymns. Salem, Joshua Cushing.

NEW EDITIONS.

Vol. II. Part I. of the New Cyclopædia, or Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences—To be completed in 20 vols. quarto. Formed upon a more enlarged plan of arrangement than the dictionary of Mr. Chambers. By Abraham Rees. $3 the half vol. Philadelphia, Bradford. L. Blake, No. 1, Cornhill, agent in Boston.

The Life of the Right Honourable William Pitt, late prime minister of Great-Britain, with biographical notices of the whole of his distinguished contemporaries, particularly Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, Lord Grenville, Mr. Windham, Mr. Wilberforce, Viscount Melville, Mr. Grattan, Lord Erskine, Earl Fitzwilliam, Lord Sidmouth, Earl Spencer, Mr. Tierney, &c. Embellished with an excellent likeness, engraved by Edwin. Price $1, in boards. Philadelphia, John Watts.

Annals of the Right Hon. William Pitt. 12mo. pp. 158. Philadelphia, B. Graves, for Hugh Maxwell, &c.

Original Anecdotes of Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, and of his family, his court, his ministers, his academies, and literary friends. Collected during a familiar intercourse of twenty years with that prince. Translated from the French of Dieudonné Thiebault, professor of belles lettres in the royal academy of Berlin. In 2 vols. Vol. I. pp. 434. 8vo. Philadelphia, E. Bronson.

Biographical memoirs of lord viscount Nelson, with observations critical and explanatory. By John Charnock, author of the Biographia Navalis, &c. 8vo. pp. 350. Second American edition. Price $1,50 boards. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

The Mariner's Chronicle, being a collection of the most interesting narratives of shipwrecks, fires, famines, and other calamities, incident to a life of maritime enterprize; with authentick particulars of the extraordinary adventures and sufferings of the crews, their reception, and treatment on distant shores, &c. &c. By Archibald Duncan, esq. late of the royal navy. In 4 vols. each vol. embellished with a frontispiece. Price $4 boards. Philadelphia, J. Humphreys.

The Secret History of the court and cabinet of St. Cloud. The third American edition. 12mo. price $1,25. Philadelphia, John Watts.

Pope's Homer's Iliad. 2 vols. 12mo. Boston, E. Cotton.

The Garland of Flowers; composed of translations, chiefly original, from the Spanish, Italian, Greek, Latin, &c. By Robert Walpole, Esq. B. A. of Trinity College, Cambridge. 12mo. pp. 72. New-York, by and for I. Riley & Co.

Madoc, a poem, by Robert Southey. In two volumes, octavo, price $6,50, extra boards. Boston, Munroe and Francis.

Philosophical remarks on the Christian religion; by the Rev. J. Moir, A.M. Philadelphia, Robert Mills.

Practical Philosophy of Social Life; or, The art of conversing with men: after the German of Baron Knigge. By P. Will, minister of the Reformed German congregation in the Savoy. First American edition. 8vo. pp. 368. Lansingburgh, N.Y. Penniman & Bliss.

The First Church Collection of Sacred Musick. Second edition. pp. 136. Boston, Thomas & Andrews.

The Maine Spelling Book; containing a variety of words, accented and divided, with moral and entertaining lessons, useful tables, &c. To which is added, a description of the United States in general, and the District of Maine in particular. Third edition. 12mo. 20 cents. Portland.

Logick, or the right use of reason in the inquiry after truth. With a variety of rules to guard against errour in the affairs of religion and human life, as well as in the sciences. By Isaac Watts, D.D. Third American edition. 12mo. pp. 288. Exeter, Randlett.

A Review of the Conduct of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in his transactions with Nathaniel Jeffries, late member of parliament—in which are included several particulars relative to the Princess of Wales and Mrs. Fitzherbert. To which is added, an answer by a Friend of the Prince. 37 cents. Philadelphia.

Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary. 2d American Edition.

IN THE PRESS.

Life of Beattie, in 2 vols. 8vo. Price $3. New-York, I. Riley & Co.

Memoirs of Richard Cumberland, written by himself. 12mo. 1 vol. The second American edition. New-York, Brisban & Brannan. [Messrs. D. West, J. West, and O. C. Greenleaf, of this town, have also an edition of this work in the press, 1 vol. 12mo.]

Memoirs of Samuel Foote, Esq. with a collection of his genuine bon-mots, anecdotes, opinions, &c. mostly original, and three of his dramatick pieces, not published in his works. By William Cooke, Esq. 2 vols. 12mo. New York, Peter A. Mesier.

Lempriere's Classical Dictionary. 1 large vol. 8vo. from the last London 4to edition. Philadelphia, Watts.

Robert's Treatise on Frauds. New-York, Isaac Riley and Co.

Carr's Northern Summer. 12mo. $1,25. New-London, Cady and Eels.

I. Riley & Co. booksellers of New York, have in the press and will shortly publish, a topographical and statistical account of the city of New-York and its environs, to be intitled, "*The picture of New-York, or the Traveller's Guide in New-York and its vicinity.*" This work is intended to be published in a neat pocket volume, and to comprise the principal information of which travellers and strangers stand in need. It will be executed after the manner of the Guides to Paris, London, Oxford, and other remarkable places in Europe. To render this work more interesting and useful, it will be accompanied by maps of the city, of the surrounding country of the state. It will also be embellished with engravings of several *picturesque scenes*, such as the falls of the Passaic and Niagara, the passage of the Hudson through the mountains, &c. &c.

The American Builder's Companion, or system of architecture, containing 44 neatly executed engravings, under the inspection of Ashur Benjamin, architect and carpenter, and D. Raynard, architect and stucco worker, authors of the work. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

PROPOSED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

The Dramatick Works of William Shakespeare, with Dr. Samuel Johnson's Preface and Notes. Second edition. Boston, Munroe & Francis.—☞ The sale of the whole of their first edition and the frequent demand for copies have induced the publishers to propose a second. It will be printed correctly from Dr. Johnson's octavo edition, which is allowed to give the true text of Shakespeare, in eight 12mo. vols. each embellished with an engraved title-page. It will be delivered to subscribers in half volumes, sewed in red, at 42 cts. payable on delivery. A list of the subscribers' names will accompany the last No. The work contains The author's life, by Rowe; Dr. Johnson's Preface; and thirty-six Plays; which will be printed with an entire new type on fine wove paper.

Delolme on the Constitution of England; or, an account of the English government, in which it is compared with the republican form of government and the other monarchies in Europe. By J. D. Delolme, advocate. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 500. $2 in boards. Hallowell, Maine, J. Johnson.

Burlamaqui on Natural and Political Law. 1 vol. 8vo. Cambridge, Hilliard.

An abridgment of the system of midwifery. By N. Chapman, M. D. honourary member of the royal medical society of Edinburgh, and lecturer in midwifery in Philadelphia. Philadelphia, John Watts.

Johnson's Works, in 15 pocket vols. Cambridge, Hilliard.

Contemplations on the Sacred History, altered from the works of the Right Reverend Father in God, Joseph Hall, D. D. sometime Lord Bishop of Norwich. By the Rev. George Henry Glasse, M.A. Rector of Hanwell, Middlesex, and Chaplain to the Earl of Radnor. From the 3d edition, 4 vols. in 3, of about 350 each. 12mo. Price $3. Philadelphia, W. W. Woodward.

The Works of Dr. Edward Young. 2 vols. 12mo. 400 pages each. Price in boards $2,50. Boston, Hosea Sprague.

Biographical Sketches of the late Rev. John Gano, written principally by himself. 12mo. pp. 180. 75 cts. bound. Cincinnati (Ohio) Spy Office.

The Voter's Guide: or, the power, duty, and privilege of the constitutional voters in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. To which are added, original remarks, with various extracts from historians and the writings and publick speeches of eminent political characters in this and other countries, tending to explain the causes of the rise and fall of republicks. 12mo. pp. 150. Price 50 cts. in boards. Leominster, Massa. S. & J. Wilder.

Rudiments of the Art of Playing on the Piano-Forte, containing elements of musick, &c. Boston, G. Graupner.

INTELLIGENCE.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

Henry Richard, Lord Holland, has lately published a literary work, entitled, "Some account of the Life and Writings of Lope Felix de Vega Carpio." 8vo. 9s. boards.

On January the first, 1807, will be commenced, in London, a new monthly publication, entitled The Athenæum; a magazine of literary and miscellaneous information. Conducted by J. Aikin, M.D. Of this work, the first part will be devoted to general correspondence, comprising in its topicks all interesting matter of inquiry or information in polite literature, antiquities, science, philosophy, natural history, statisticks, domestick economy, manners, &c. In this department, controversial discussions, within the bounds of moderation and decorum, will be freely admitted; queries and their answers will be inserted; exposures of defects and abuses, proposals for improvement, and useful suggestions of all kinds, will be thankfully attended to. Distinct and permanent parts of the publication will be allotted to the following objects: Classical Disquisitions; consisting of remarks historical and critical upon all the principal authors of antiquity, and the manuscripts, editions, translations, &c. of their works.—Analyses of, and extracts from, scarce and curious books of different ages and countries;—memoirs of distinguished persons;—literary intelligence, domestick and foreign;—original poetry;—the political events of the preceding month;—meterological registers and observations;—agricultural and commercial reports;—a notice of all interesting occurrences throughout the united kingdoms, with an obituary of remarkable characters.

The first fasciculus of the long expected Flora Græca of the late Professor SIBTHORP, edited by Dr. SMITH, will make its appearance in a few days. It will consist of 50 plates, beautifully coloured, with descriptive letter-press. This splendid work will form, when completed, ten volumes in folio, containing one thousand figures, executed by Sowerby from the masterly drawings of Mr. Ferdinand Bauer.

Mr. P. KELLY, the eminent master of the commercial academy in Finsbury-square, is preparing with great labour a new and accurate work on exchanges, to be published in one large volume quarto, under the title of the Universal Cambist. He takes for his foundation the work of Kruse, entitled the Hamburgh Contorist, which he has modernized, adapted to the English standard, and considerably enlarged from unquestionable living authorities. Among other numerous and important additions, are new essays of the principal current coins by which the intrinsick par of exchange is determined. The price will not exceed three guineas; and the charge to subscribers will be half-a-guinea less than to the public.

The Rev. J. Robinson, master of the grammar school at Ravenstondale, is engaged in a new and complete work on the Antiquities of Greece, similar in design to the Roman Antiquities of Dr. Adams. Besides introducing every thing valuable in the works of Archbishop Potter and others who wrote on Grecian antiquities at a distant period, Mr. Robinson has availed himself of the Travels of Anacharsis, of the works of Stuart, Choiseul Gauffier, Sonnini, Winkleman, and other recent writers and travellers, to enrich his work, and render it useful and desirable to students and admirers of Greek literature.

Accounts have been received from the Baptist missionary in Bengal, bearing date November 15, 1805, by which it appears that the converts had increased since the commencement of the year from 34 to 70. Three of the natives are preaching the gospel. The missionaries are proceeding in the translation and printing of the Old and New Testament in four or five eastern languages, and they hope to accomplish the translation into all the languages of the East.

In the Antiquarian Society an account has been read of the splendid equipage and sumptuary retinue of the Earl of Northumberland, at his embarkation for France in the reign of Henry VIII.—The gospel of St. John, in Latin, but written on parchment in Roman characters mixed with Saxon, was exhibited to the society by the Rev. Mr. Milner. This volume is said to be 1,200 years old.

A Catalogue of the particulars of the manuscripts, collations, and books, with manuscript notes, of the late James Philip D'Orville, Esq., purchased by the University of Oxford in 1805 for £.1025, will shortly be printed.

In the course of August last Messrs. Boydell & Co. of London were to publish the third edition corrected of *Hogarth Illustrated*, by J. Ireland, in 3 vols. royal 8vo. This work contains not only an explanation of each print, but numerous anecdotes of that great artist, and the times in which he lived. The 3d volume, compiled from Hogarth's MSS., and containing upwards of 40 new prints, and a correct list of the numerous variations in his engravings, may be had separate for the completion of sets, to accommodate those who purchased the two first volumes before the third was published.

Mr. Cromek intends to publish in the course of the ensuing winter a series of twelve engravings, etched in a very superior style of excellence, by Louis Schiavonetti, from the original inventions of William Blake, illustrative of Blair's popular poem "The Grave." In consequence of the originality of the designs, and the vigorous expression, the work has been honoured with the patronage of the first professors of art in the metropolis, and by the subscriptions of upwards of 250 of the most distinguished amateurs.

GERMANY.

A splendid edition of the Poetical Works of the celebrated Schiller, with plates, will speedily appear.

Sturtz is publishing *Mattaire de linguæ græcæ dialectis opus auctum et emendatum.*

RUSSIA.

A letter has recently been received from M. Rhemann, the physician in the suite of the Russian embassy to China, dated Kiachta on the frontiers of China, October 14th, 1805; in which he says that he has vaccinated a great number of the children of the Moguls. "These people (continues M. Rehmann,) have retained the simple manners and customs of their ancestors. They live in tents, and still make use of bows and arrows, which they employ with such dexterity and precision, that when they went out with the Russians of the ambassador's suite they killed six times as much game as the latter, though provided with excellent fowling-pieces." He likewise writes that he has discovered a little portable pharmaceutick collection of Thibet, from which the science of medicine is likely to derive advantage. It consists of sixty different articles, very elegantly wrapped in paper. Among these are some remedies known in Europe; but with a much greater number the botanists attached to the embassy were unacquainted. The latter consist of small fruits, nuts, and some chemical preparations. M. Rehmann has procured a translation of the list of them, which was written in the language of Tangut. He proposes to bring with him some of these collections of medicines, which are much in use among the Bucharians.

SWEDEN.

Colonel Skiöldebrand, whose Picturesque Tour in Lapland is well known, is at present engaged on a History of all the publick festivals held in Sweden, which will be a splendid work with engravings. He is said to have received an advance of 12,000 rix-dollars towards this work, of which great expectations are entertained.

The fifth part of Icones Plantarum Japonicarum, by Thunberg, has made its appearance; but it is likely to be the last the learned professor will publish, unless some foreign bookseller will undertake to give his admirable collections to the world.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES, &c.

from Sept. 20 to Oct. 20, 1806.

THE atmosphere has been clear during great part of the past month, and the weather cool. Winds from the north-west and north-east.

The attention of physicians has been principally called to the *autumnal fever*: yet this disease has not been so common, and far less fatal than in most years. It is right to have it stated; though we are not desirous of making any general inferences from it at present; that the *depletion of the sanguiferous system* is rarely, if ever, resorted to by our physicians; and we suspect that as few die of fever here, in the same number of cases, as in any city of this country. The *mercurial* practice is employed with ardour by some, and with doubt by others; perhaps this is to be explained by the fact, that it is now and then brilliantly successful, in other cases inefficient, in a few hurtful. This powerful medicine would be more frequently useful, if the principles for its application were understood. The occasional, though cautious, use of *catharticks*, in a way very similar to that recommended by the judicious Dr. Hamilton, is very well established. *Cold water* is gradually removing the obstacles opposed to it by the prejudices of the vulgar, and will probably become a common and useful remedy in fevers. The *cholera* of infants has been more fatal in this, than the last month; but the number of cases not greater.

The cow-pock practice increases.

Interments in Boston from August 29 to Sept. 26, from the Sextons returns.

	Mal.	Fem.	Ch.
Accident	2		
Apoplexy		1	
Colic, bilious	1		
Consumption	3	12	1
Dropsy			2
Drowned	1		
Fever, nervous	2		
———, putrid	1		
———, slow bilious		1	
Fits			1
Hooping cough			1
Inf. complaints			13
Imprudence	2		
Intoxication	1		
Old age	2	1	
Quinzy			1
Diseases not mentioned	2	7	1
	17	22	20

Interments from Sept. 26 to October 23.

Accident	3		1
Colic, bilious	1		
Consumption	6	7	
Dropsy	2	2	
Drowned	2		1
Fever, slow	1		
———, bilious	1	1	
———, nervous	1	1	
Inf. complaints			15
Mortification		1	
Old age	2	1	
Suddenly			2
Diseases not mentioned	6	2	18
	25	15	37

THE
MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

NOVEMBER, 1806.

BIOGRAPHY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

[Continued from page 525.]

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.—PLAT. de Leg. IV.

IN 1728 the members of Trinity College renewed their attacks upon their master. A charge of violating statutes, wasting the college revenues, &c. &c., was exhibited to the Bishop of Ely, in sixty-five articles. These contained a recapitulation of their former grievances, and a considerable addition to the number of their imaginary evils. This *catalogue*, accompanied by a petition, was presented to the bishops, although the most eminent lawyers, in the year 1712, had given their opinion that the crown possessed the general visitatorial power, as well as over the master in particular.

While the establishing of the visitor was in debate, and Bentley's enemies in his college were busily employed in accumulating charges of violation of statutes, &c. &c. his quarrel with the university was finally determined in his favour. Those enemies who had contributed to his degradation now found all their efforts vain, and their machinations defeated, while the publick, in general, were confirmed in their opinion of the illegality and violence of the measures, which the university had pursued. With respect to these proceedings a cause was long in agitation at the court of King's Bench*, where the propriety of the vice-chancellor's conduct was disputed. The ministry did not wish to exert their authority any farther on the occasion; but the court reversed the decree of the university, and a mandamus was sent to Cambridge, on the 7th of February, 1728, to order that Mr. Bentley should be restored to all the degrees and honours of which he had been deprived.

In the first divinity act, after Dr. Bentley was restored to his degrees, he moderated himself as professor in the publick schools. Dr. John Addenbroke, afterwards Dean of Litchfield, appeared as respondent for the degree of Bachelor of Divinity, who had taken a very active part against Bentley in the senate-house, when his degradation was the subject of debate. His first question was :

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* For a list of the pamphlets published during the conclusion of these disputes, we must refer to the ingenious Mr. Gough's British Topog. Vol. I.

I. *Galei argumenta non valent contra pædobaptismum ?* The professor objected to the terms of it, because it confined the question to Gale's arguments, and cried out, "*Quid nobis cum homuncione Galeo ?*" It was observed, afterwards, that the last determination which Bentley had made in the schools before his degradation was on this subject, and that he had said that Gale's arguments need only be considered, as they contained all that could be alleged against infant baptism. The second question was, "*Miracula a Christo edita probant ejus divinam missionem ?*" To the Latinity of this he objected, and said that he had heard of *edere librum, edere signum populo : sed quis unquam audivit, edere miracula ? Miracula facta sunt non edita.* Bentley was undoubtedly right, for we read in Pliny†, "*Ludibria sibi, obis miracula, fecit natura ;* but, *edere miracula* we do not remember.

With respect to the dispute of the members of Trinity College, as the Bishop of Ely declined to act, the society, engaged in the cause, and presented a petition to his majesty under the common seal in August, 1728. This was referred to a committee of the privy-council, as well as that of the bishop, who petitioned to be heard concerning his right, on the 2d of November. A printed state of the case of Trinity College was delivered to the privy-counsellors previous to the day ‡ appointed for a hearing, in which it was stated, that the college, as they wished an immediate examination into their affairs, intreated that his majesty would assume to himself the power of visitor. On March the 15th the cause came on before the lords, and was referred to the court of King's-Bench, and in May, 1729, after a long trial, the judges unanimously determined, that the bishop had a right to exercise a power as visitor, over the master of Trinity College.

In June the petitioners exhibited their articles before his lordship ; but a suspicion arose, that he wished to be accounted general visitor, the master and fellows procured a further hearing in November. The bishop lost his cause ; and in 1731 he moved for a writ of errour, in order to bring it, by appeal, into the house of lords. The crown at last put an end to these disputes, by complying with the petition of the college, and taking the master and the college into its own jurisdiction and visitation.

Soon after the restoration of his degrees, Dr. Bentley wrote an anonymous letter to Chishull, with some critical remarks on an inscription to Jupiter *Urius*, which he had inserted in his *Antiquitates Asiaticæ*, and had restored in several passages which Spon and Wheler had published very negligently.

Chishull, who was an acute scholar, and a man of solid learning, admitted part of Bentley's corrections, and part he rejected, concluding his letter thus : "*Ultimum (sc. Distichon) nunc lubens verto magis ad mentem hujus Herculis musarum. Sic enim ex pede ipsum metior, proque accepto habeo, quod qui clavâ confligere potuit, suadela maluit.*" The Hercules of the Muses, indeed, he proved himself by his criticism on this epigram. About two years after these letters had passed between the learned Chishull and our British Aristarchus, the marble itself, from which the verses had been copied, was brought into England, and placed in Dr. Mead's collection. On examination, it appeared that the inscription was originally cut *in the very same letters* which Bentley had conjectured.

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† VII. 2. Vol. II. p. 95. Ed. Brotier.

‡ March 13, 1728.

This remarkable instance of critical sagacity has been recorded and celebrated, by the learned Dr. Taylor, in the preface to his admirable little treatise *De inopi debitore in partis dissecando*, in which he has given a *fac simile* of inscription on the marble; and among other short pieces of criticisms, which are subjoined to this work, he has preserved the original letters of Bentley and Chishull.

Our great critick's disputes with his college and the university were now finally settled: and his real merits, aided by justice and truth, crushed the efforts of faction and malevolence. Those who had envied his erudition and talents, now saw all their schemes defeated. Dr. Bentley, whose degradation they had so strenuously laboured to accomplish, now rose superiour to their little arts, and the publick in general began to view the proceedings of his enemies in their proper light.

His duty as royal librarian was rendered agreeable, not only by the nature of his favourite pursuits, but also by the attention which was shewn him by Queen Caroline, who was his constant patroness, and was justly entitled to the elegant compliment which he paid her in his publick speech on creating the Doctor in Divinity. Her Majesty was particularly fond of engaging him in literary disputes with Dr. Clarke, *Vir supra nostrum præconium longissime positus*. To these amicable contests, Bentley for some time submitted, but as they generally terminated without either party's deriving much information from them, he declined them, and pleaded his health as an excuse.

The instigations of Queen Caroline, as she wished him to publish an English classick, induced Dr. Bentley to undertake his edition of Milton, which appeared in quarto in the year 1732, with two *busts* of the poet, at different periods of his life, engraved by Vertue. In his preface, he tells us that the mistakes in pointing, orthography, and distinction of capital letters are here carefully corrected. The elision of vowels, and the accent are particularly marked. The verses which have been *foisted into the book*, by the former editor, are pointed out as spurious, and several lines corrected or interposed by the editor himself, in order to give that appearance of system and consistency, which Milton himself would have done, if he had been able himself to have revised and corrected the whole poem.

Such is the account which Bentley gives of his own edition. He then very happily compares Paradise Lost, in its former state, with the *defædations* of printer and editor, and debased by the malignity of his enemies, to the condition of the beautiful, though poor and ill-dressed virgin, in Terence's *Phormio*:

> ....*Ut, ni* VIS BONI
> *In ipsa inesset forma, hæc formam extinguerent.*

He then endeavours to account for the silence of the criticks with regard to the faults which he had pointed out, and thus concludes: "Who durst oppose the universal vogue? and risque his own character, while he laboured to exalt Milton's? I wonder rather, that it is done even now. Had these very notes been written forty years ago, it would then have been prudence to have suppressed them, for fear of injuring one's rising fortune. But now, when seventy years *jamdudum memorem monuerunt*, and spoke loudly in my ears,

Mitte leves spes et certamina divitiarum ;

I made the notes *extempore*, and put them to the press as soon as made ; without any apprehension of growing leaner by censures, or plumper by commendations."

We shall not pretend to enter into a minute examination of Bentley's notes and corrections of this noble poem. That he has improved several passages is certain, and that he has made many trifling remarks, and many unjustifiable and indeed unnecessary alterations cannot be denied. The text, however, he has not violated, but has given all his alterations in the margin.

His plan seems strange and unwarrantable. Above three hundred of Milton's verses are inclosed in hooks, as spurious, and above seventy either wholly written or altered by the editor himself, are proposed to supply their places. These, he hopes, will not be found *disagreeing from the* Miltonian character. Besides these innovations in above three hundred lines, he offers a change of two or more words, and in above six hundred more, *one* word only is altered. Such was his rage for emendation.

The *sacred* top of Horeb, for *secret*, is an improvement ; but when he wishes to read *ardent* gems, in the *third* book, for *orient* gems ; and in the *fourth*, *radiant* pearl, for *orient* pearl, we cannot but exclaim

Quis novus hic hospes ?

But in Book V. v. 177, when he proposes ye *four* other wandering *stars*, instead of ye *five*—*fires*, because the *sun*, *moon*, and *Venus* had been already named in the Morning Hymn, we are indeed surprised. Did not Bentley know that the *sun* is not one of the planets, and that the *earth* is, and was certainly intended by Milton to complete the number *five ;* as in the eighth book he says, "*The planet earth ?*" The change of *darkness visible* into *transpicuous gloom* is idle and unwarrantable, though *transpicuous* be of the *Miltonian character*.

The passages of this admirable poem which our critick rejects are usually those, which contain similies or descriptions. Why these ornamental parts of the work, though sometimes defective, are to be deemed interpolations, would require no common portion of sagacity to determine. To us these appear *beauties*. To confess the truth, Bentley, with all his critical acumen, was ill calculated for a corrector of Milton's verses. He is too daring, and does not appear to possess any extraordinary portion of *poetical taste*, which was highly requisite. "The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling," seems not to have fallen to his lot ; and even in his grammatical strictures he is sometimes mistaken, as the Bishop of London has observed.

Let not this edition, however, be deprived of its deserts. Many of his remarks are acute, and several of his emendations are certainly improvements. Among these may be reckoned "*Ichorous* humor issuing flow'd," which he defends by the well-known line of Homer.

Ιχωρ, οιοσπερ τε ρεει μακαρεσσι θεοισι,

and in Book IV. v. 944,

......."With songs to hymn his throne
And *practise discipline* to cringe not fight,"

instead of *practis'd distances*. This emendation is established by verse 954, in which Gabriel says:

"Was this your *discipline*?"—

He ought, indeed, in justice, to have pointed out the beauties of the work, as well as its errors—for though he comforts himself in *Latin* and *Greek*:

"*Jacta est alea*, and *non injussa cecini*:

Παρ' εμοιγε και αλλοι,
Οι κε με τιμησουσι, μαλίστα δε μητιετα Ζευς,"

in his concluding note; yet if he had valued his reputation more than the advice of his friends, or, perhaps, than his own opinion of his abilities, he certainly would never have assumed such an office, as *editor* and *reviser* of Milton, but would have declined the task imposed on him by her Majesty.

These notes roused an army of petty criticks, who stood forth as champions of the injured poet. The Grub-street Journal, and other periodical works, attacked the critick. But of all the pamphlets and remarks which were then published, Dr. Pearce's *review* of the text of Paradise Lost, with considerations on Bentley's emendations and new corrections, was of the most consequence. The principal part of these remarks, however, has been incorporated into the late Bishop of Bristol's edition of Milton's poetical works, so that as our readers in general must be well acquainted with them, we forbear transcriptions, and shall only observe, that Newton and Pearce seem unwarrantably severe in their strictures on Bentley's corrections. Let it be remembered, likewise, that the learned editor of the new *Biographia Britannica* is of the same opinion.

It was observed, on the evidence of a writer in the Grub-street Journal, who received the intelligence from Dr. Ashenhurst, that Bentley had employed eight or nine years in preparing his Milton, although he talks of *extemporary* notes, in his preface. This may be true, yet it does not contradict the Doctor's assertion. For he might have formed his plan, and have acquainted Dr. Ashenhurst with his intention, and yet not have written his notes until the book was going to the printer. He might even have noted his corrections on the margin of a Milton, and yet have been prevented from explaining them, by indisposition, or the disputes in which he was involved with the university during that period.

We shall conclude these loose remarks, with a passage from Dr. Johnson's life of Milton, whose criticism on Paradise Lost, cannot be praised too loudly, or perused too frequently:—"The generality of my scheme does not admit the frequent notice of verbal inaccuracies; which Bentley, better skilled in grammar than in poetry, has often found, though he sometimes made them, and which he imputed to the obtrusions of a reviser, whom the author's blindness obliged him to employ. A supposition rash and groundless, if he thought it true; and vile and pernicious, if, as is said, he in private allowed it to be false."

Bentley never attempted any defence of this work, but permitted his enemies to triumph, and the criticks to cavil. He seemed at last inclined to enjoy the *otium cum dignitate*, and to leave disputes and criticisms to those whose age, health, & spirits were better calculated to endure fatigue, and who were

Et cantare PARES, *et respondere parati*·

A slight paralytick stroke had weakened his constitution: his frame was frequently disordered, and his mind easily ruffled. During the contest about the visitatorial power, when Bishop Moore, with whom he had long lived in habits of intimacy, appeared in court, on the opposite party, he was so affected with the sight of his old friend, in such a situation, that he immediately fainted away.

Bentley was very severely though surely very improperly satirized by Pope, in the fourth book of the Dunciad. The lines are well known, and were occasioned by an opinion, which was forced from Bentley, with respect to the translation of Homer, at Atterbury's table, while Pope was present. The bishop very imprudently and indelicately asked the critick what he thought of the English Homer. The Doctor eluded the question for some time, but at last, when he was urged to speak his sentiments freely, he said; "The verses are good verses, but the work is not Homer, it is Spondanus!" Pope seldom forgot injuries, and many years after this conversation, he assigned a place in the Dunciad to our British Aristarchus. Never was satire more illiberal or unjust. Pope was not sufficiently acquainted with ancient literature to be capable of deciding on Bentley's critical abilities. He might see that many of his notes on Milton were trifling, and that his remarks on Horace were often bold and hazardous, but of his solid learning, his extensive knowledge, and his diversified erudition he was certainly not competent to form a judgment.

In the year 1735 he wrote an answer to some queries of an Oxford Gentleman, concerning the date of a Persick manuscript of the four Gospels, which had been sent from Ispahan. This letter has likewise been preserved by Dr. Taylor, and is published with his valuable little tract, *De debitore dissecando.* He says in his preface, that it is: "*Mole quidem parva, exigua autem et subtilitate plenissima. Qua diligenter perlecta eruditus Lector mecum sentiet nihil unquam argutius, nihil solidius aut verius ex Tripode fuisse responsum.*"

In 1738 a libel was exhibited before the vicar-general of the Bishop of Ely, against Dr. Colbatch, rector of Orwell, who refused to pay the proxies due to Dr. Bentley, as archdeacon of Ely. In his defence Dr. Colbatch, who bore an excellent character, though his virtue was rather of the severer cast, alleged, that though Bentley had been archdeacon forty years, he had never, in obedience to the ecclesiastical laws, been known to visit one church or chapel. Sentence, however, was passed against Colbatch, with costs of suit, upon which in 1741 he published a pamphlet, intituled, The State of Proxies payable to Ecclesiastical Visitors fully stated.

In 1739 appeared the *Astronomicon* of *Manilius*, with corrections and notes, by Dr. Bentley. This edition was ushered into the world by a dedication to the Duke of Newcastle, and a preface by Mr. Richard Bentley, a nephew of the Doctor; with whose approbation both these introductory pieces were written.

In the preface he gives a full account of his uncle's opinion of the work, and its author, as well as of the various manuscripts and printed copies which he consulted, in order to perfect this edition.

Bentley places Manilius in the age of Augustus; and among other proofs, he vindicates his assertion by the termination of the genitive cases of words in *ius*, and *ium*, which always terminated in a single *i*, before that period: as *Auxilium*, *Auxili*: *Consilium*, *Consili*: *Imperium*, *Imperi*: &c. Propertius is the first of the Roman poets, whose works are extant, in whom this rule is infringed, and by him only in two or three instances. Ovid, who lived rather later, frequently uses the *double i*; and after him, it became general. This change, however, took place long after the accession of Augustus to the government. This remark we owe to Bentley, and it is worthy of the British Aristarchus. He first promulgated it in his notes on the Andria* of Terence, where he candidly corrects a mistake which he had made in a passage of Horace, and justifies his observation on these genitive cases, by citing a passage from Nigidius Figulus, *Romanorum a Varrone doctissimus*, which is preserved by Gellius †, by which it is evident, that in his age *accent* was the only distinction between the genitive and vocative cases of words in *ius*, as N. Valerius, G. Valeri, V. Valeri. Bentley, therefore, as Manilius, or the author of the poem, whatever was his name, except in one Greek word, never uses the *double i*, in the *Casus interrogandi*, determines the Astronomicon to have been written in the early part of the age of Augustus.

The author, according to our critick, was a foreigner, and, therefore, the peculiarities of style which occur in his work do not militate against his having been contemporary with Augustus: especially as many of the exceptionable passages are proved by Bentley to be spurious. Of his name nothing certain can be pronounced. Neither the manuscript copies of the poem, nor the author in the course of his work, nor the testimony of other writers, bring any certain assistance.

With regard to the text, Bentley generally follows the edition of Scaliger, and has preserved all the readings which he rejected. In some passages, his corrections seem extravagantly different from the common copies: which appears to be in some measure excuseable, when it is known, that no single piece on ancient literature was ever so much depraved by the negligence or ignorance of transcribers; for the various readings are more numerous even than the verses of the poem.

To be concluded next month.

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* Act II. Sc. I. Ver. 20.

† Apul. Gellium. XIII. 24.

For the Anthology.

THE REMARKER. №. 15.

Motus
Astrorum ignoro ;..
....ranarum viscera nunquam
Inspexi. Juv. Sat. 3.

I have no skill to read the stars, nor ever pried in toads' entrails.

OF the effects, resulting from the general effusion of knowledge, one of the most useful, and perhaps the most extensive, is our emancipation from the tyranny of superstition. An eclipse was once the portent of revolution, the forerunner of defeat, the warning of famine and of pestilence; but I have heard of only one man, that thought the darkness on the sixteenth day of June last sent, as a judgment for our sins. The most artful politician, the most profound philosopher, the most heroick and prudent commander had less influence on the state of society, than the crafty juggler, the master of the ceremonies at the temple of Delphi. The armies of the ancients were often restrained from combat at a favourable opportunity, because the traiterous soothsayers declared the omens inauspicious; so that, says Bayle, a diviner was as necessary an officer as a general.

Sailors have always been more prone to this weakness, than other classes of men; and the commander of the most numerous maritime expedition ever fitted out, was, while his fleet was detained by contrary winds, so ignorant of the common operation, or so distrustful of the kindness of heaven, as to sacrifice his daughter to propitiate a change. At present, though they hardly dare to commence their voyage without a horse-shoe on the foot of their foremast, yet in battle they rise above such follies, and, whether it thunder on the right or the left, are as heedless of auspices, as their captains of danger. Some have even ventured to depart on Fridays, though that has been always reckoned among the dies nefasti; and I have never heard, that any special punishment has marked their presumption.

As arts and sciences are in our days cultivated by greater numbers than formerly, they have also become easier of acquisition: so that if the worship be less honourable, the devotees are more numerous. The mystical practices of astrology and palmistry, of witch-craft and of fortune-telling, required the labours of a life. The beard of the cunning man was always as long as the tail of the comet, from which he derived his predictions. The instruction must have commenced in childhood to prepare the adept at the age of puberty for solemn dedication to the devil. This is the course to eminence, pointed out by universal experience. Of the hero of the Iliad we should probably have suspected the truth, had the scholiasts never informed us, that the food of the infant Achilles was the marrow of lions.

The punishment of sorcerers by our laws was formerly terrible. The statute of Jac. I, who equalled me in hating, and much surpassed me in dreading, these miscreants, orders, that "such as consult, covenant with, entertain, employ, feed, or reward any evil spirit to any intent" shall be punished with death.—But we have gradually parted with our fear, and doomed to contempt those, whom we once dreaded as ministers of hell. The evil has increased by this neglect. Superstition is nearly as prevalent in the country, as fanaticism in the city. Those who claim communication with familiar demons, are deserving of punishment; and it is hoped the law may be executed against fortune tellers and fanaticks, against pretenders to inspiration from above or from below. To shew the necessity of this, I relate what happened a few months since in our neighbourhood, an instance of credulity equal lamentable and ridiculous.

Three men, of whom one was a justice in Vermont, and another a conjuror, came to a gentleman, residing, on the banks of the Connecticut, and requested leave to dig in his garden for a chest of money. That this treasure was deposited there he could not doubt, when one of them assured him, that he had twice dreamed, that on the right hand of the road was a high rock, strangely notched at the top, and at four rods distance in a north-east course from the rock, a red picket fence, near which was buried the wealth which would reward their search. The dreamer had not been in the vicinity for many years, and had come from a great distance, so that his circumstantial description was sufficient proof of his sincerity. The owner of the soil could have no objection to such a request; he only demanded one half of what should be found; but was prevailed on to accept a quarter.

The cunning man with his rod of witch hazle, to be holden in both hands, like an old-fashioned pair of curling-tongs, stalked in solemn silence over the garden, till his rod suddenly pointed downwards. Under this spot lay the treasure. Another person took the rod; but in his hands it was uniformly inflexible. He was reminded by the adept, that the witch hazle never designates the place, where money is buried, unless it be wielded by the hands of *a seventh son of a seventh son, born under the full blaze* of a certain planet. Around this spot our conjuror described a circle, and on the North, South, and East points spread an open bible. The West was left unprotected, because on that side was the river, which the evil spirit would not dare approach.

The party now began to dig with an activity, never exercised before; and after a few hours they turned up some bones, among which was a human skull. The owner of the soil knew, that this had been one of the favourite resting places of the Indians, as from the neighbouring river they were always sure of a supply of fish. However to encourage these miners he affirmed, that he had once, in digging on his farm, thrown out human bones, which bled freely. Nothing could be a stronger confirmation of their hopes. The pick axe and spade now rattled on the lid of the chest; and the reward of their labours, the consummation of their fortunes, and the confusion and conviction of incredulous scoffers was now within their reach.

The famous pirate, Capt. Kidd, who about a century and a half ago had amassed wealth by his depredations, never since equalled but by the imperial vagabond from Corsica, buried this money here. He was once chased by an English frigate in Long-Island sound, and was obliged to enter the Connecticut. Here he debarked, and, loading his men with treasure, marched across the country to descend the St. Lawrence, his only safe avenue to the ocean. In their journey through the wilderness, when any one fell sick, his money was immediately buried, and he himself, horresco referens, murdered and deposited upon the chest to mark the spot. In the same way money was buried by pirates under the famous poised rock on the left hand of the Salem turnpike, and I have never yet heard of its removal.

Whether Capt. Kidd ever reached the St. Lawrence was beyond the information of these labourers; but it had been commonly believed, that he had penetrated so far, one hundred miles from the ocean, and the indication of the witch hazle was now incontestably established by these mouldering relicks. Unhappily one of the company asked another to lend him his spade, and the evil spirit, resenting the insult of breaking silence, instantly sunk the chest and its treasure fifty feet lower, where it has never since been heard from.

From the Censura Literaria, September, 1806.

"A SKETCH OF THE GENIUS AND WRITINGS OF DR. BEATTIE, WITH EXTRACTS FROM HIS LIFE AND LETTERS," LATELY PUBLISHED BY SIR WILLIAM FORBES.*

SIR William Forbes's long-expected Life of Dr. Beattie has at length appeared in two quarto volumes : and I cannot refrain from indulging myself with a few cursory remarks, and a few extracts, while my heart and my head are warm with the subject. Has it added to our admiration of him as an author and a man? It has done both. There are many circumstances which combine to qualify Sir William, in a very uncommon degree, for the biographer of this great poet and philosopher : their long, intimate, and uninterrupted friendship, their habits of constant correspondence, and their congenial turns of mind, in particular ; while the talents, and the character of the survivor, and his very extensive & near acquaintance with the most eminent men in the literary world, give a force and authority to his narration, which few eulogists can confer.

But with due respect to the examples of Mr. Mason, and Mr. Hayley, I confess I am not entirely satisfied with the plan of leaving a man to be principally his own biographer, by means of a series of letters, connected by a few short and occasional narratives. I do not mean indeed to depreciate those of Mr. Hayley, by comparing them with his predecessor's, which always from a boy disgusted me with their stiff and barren frigidity ; while those of the former glow with all the warmth of friendship, and congenial poetick feeling : but I allude only to the plan.

There are many points, on which there is no doubt that an author can best delineate his own character : but there are others, of which he is totally disqualified to give a fair portrait, and of which, if he were qualified, it is highly improbable that his Letters should furnish an adequate account.

I trust therefore I may be excused for venturing the opinion, which I have long formed, that, though Letters are an excellent, and almost necessary, accompaniment of a Life ; and though appropriate extracts from them, and continued references to them may well be introduced in the narrative, yet they should not form the principal part of that narrative, which, as it seems to me, should exhibit one unbroken composition. To leave the generality of readers to collect and combine an entire portrait, or a regular series of events, from the scattered notices of a variety of desultory letters, is to give them credit for a degree of attention, and a power of drawing results, which few will be found to possess, and fewer still have leisure to exercise.

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* We are happy to hear, that the above work will shortly appear from the press of I. Riley & Co., New-York.

Having thus frankly declared my sentiments, it is almost unnecessary to add, that I prefer the plan adopted by Dr. Currie, in his Life of Burns, to that, which has been chosen by Sir William Forbes for the life of his illustrious friend. In the execution of the mode he has followed Sir William has discovered a soundness of judgment and taste in his selection, an elegance of language, a purity of sentiment, and an ardour of friendship, which will do him immortal honour. But, as my purpose is not to criticise the biographer, but to make some slight remarks on the poet, I must proceed.

Beattie was born a poet; that is, he was born with those talents and sensibilities, which, with the assistance of the slightest education, are almost certain in due time to vent themselves in poetry. In the first occupation of his manhood, the care of an obscure country school, Sir Wm. Forbes says, "he had a never failing resource in his own mind; in those meditations which he loved to indulge, amidst the beautiful and sublime scenery of that neighbourhood, which furnished him with endless amusement. At a small distance from the place of his residence a deep and extensive glen, finely cloathed with wood, runs up into the mountains. Thither he frequently repaired; and there several of his earliest pieces were written. From that wild and romantick spot, he drew, as from the life, some of his finest descriptions, and most beautiful pictures of nature, in his poetical compositions. He has been heard to say, for instance, that the description of the owl, in his charming poem "On Retirement,"

'Whence the scar'd owl, on pinions grey,
Breaks from the rustling boughs;
And down the lone vale sails away
To more profound repose;'

was drawn after real nature. And the seventeenth stanza of the second Book of The Minstrel, in which he so feelingly describes the spot, of which he most approved, for his place of sepulture, is so very exact a picture of the situation of the church yard of Lawrence-kirk, which stands near to his mother's house, and in which is the school-house where he was daily taught, that he must certainly have had it in his view, at the time he wrote the following beautiful lines.

'Let Vanity adorn the marble tomb
With trophies, rhymes, and scutcheons of renown,
In the deep dungeon of some Gothick dome,
Where Night and Desolation ever frown!
Mine be the breezy hill that skirts the down,
Where a green grassy turf is all I crave,
With here and there a violet bestrown,
Fast by a brook, or fountain's murmuring wave;
And many an evening sun shine sweetly on my grave.'

"It was his supreme delight to saunter in the fields the livelong night, contemplating the sky, and marking the approach of day; and he used to describe with peculiar animation the soaring of the lark in a summer morning. A beautiful landscape, which he has magnificently described in the twentieth stanza of the first book of The Minstrel, corresponds exactly with what must have presented itself to his poetical imagination, at those occasions, on the approach of the rising sun, as he would view the grandeur of that scene from the hill in the neighbourhood of his native village. The high hill, which rises to the west of Fordoune, would, in a misty morning, supply him with one of the images so beautifully described in the twenty-first stanza. And the twentieth stanza of the second book of The Minstrel describes a night-scene unquestionably drawn from nature, in which he probably had in view Homer's sublime description of the Moon in the eighth book of the Iliad, so admirably translated by Pope, that an eminent critick has not scrupled to declare it to be superiour to the original. He used himself to tell, that it was from the top of a high hill in the neighbourhood, that he first beheld the ocean, the sight of which, he declared, made the most lively impression on his mind.

"It is pleasing, I think, to contemplate these his early habits, so congenial to the feelings of a poetical and warm imagination; and therefore, I trust, I shall be forgiven for having dwelt on them so long."

Sir William Forbes need have made no apology for the length of these passages. I would have said "O si sic omnia!" but that it would seem to imply some censure; and I well know that all could not be like this. We cannot always be watching the dawn of day "on the misty mountain's top;" nor be constantly wandering "alone and pensive" by the "pale beams" of the "Queen of Night." But it will not be doubted, that in the occupations of "young Edwin" the poet described many of his own early propensities and amusements. I do not agree therefore with an eminent critick,* who observing that Edwin "is marked from his cradle with those dispositions and propensities, which were to be the foundation of his future destiny," adds, "I believe it would be difficult in real biography to trace any such early indications of a genius exclusively fitted for poetry; nor do I imagine that an exquisite sensibility to the sublime and beautiful of nature is ever to be found in minds, which have not been opened by a degree of culture." The interposition indeed of the word "*exclusively*" a little qualifies the assertion; but the endowments attributed by the poet to Edwin, though they are not *exclusively*, are more *peculiarly*, adapted to poetical eminence.

If this assertion then be true, that the delineation of the infant Minstrel was essentially that of the author, for which we have the authority of Sir W. Forbes, and even of Beattie himself, there is an end to the denial of particular genius, which Johnson was so fond of urging, and which so many, on his great, but surely far from infallible judgment, are fond of repeating. Every one, possessed of equal fancy and equal sensibility of heart with Beattie, would feel in childhood similar sentiments and similar pleasures; and I think it must not be questioned that the impression of those sentiments and those pleasures would lead a person of equal capacity more peculiarly, not only to the inclination, but, with the aid of a little industry, to the power, of composing poetry.

I assert again therefore that the hand of Nature impressed on Beattie's mind the character of a poet. He afterwards became a philosopher by the effect of accident, and study. All this indeed he appears to me to have confirmed by his own direct declarations.

Hear him in a Letter to Dr. Blacklock, dated 9 Jan. 1769.

**** "Perhaps you are anxious to know what first induced me to write on this subject;" (Truth.) "I will tell you as briefly as I can. In my younger days I read chiefly for my amuse-

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* Dr. Aikin's Letters on English Poetry.

ment, and I found myself best amused with the classicks, and what we call the *Belles Lettres*. Metaphysicks I disliked ; mathematicks pleased me better ; but I found my mind neither improved nor gratified by that study. When providence allotted me my present station" (of Professor of Moral Philosophy) " it became incumbent on me to read what had been written on the subject of morals and human nature : the works of Locke, Berkeley, and Hume, were celebrated as master-pieces in this way ; to them, therefore, I had recourse. But as I began to study them with great prejudices in their favour, you will readily conceive, how strangely I was surprised to find them, as I thought, replete with absurdities : I pondered these absurdities ; I weighed the arguments, with which I was sometimes not a little confounded ; and the result was, that I began at last to suspect my own understanding, and to think that I had not capacity for such a study. For I could not conceive it possible that the absurdities of these authors were so great, as they seemed to me to be ; otherwise, thought I, the world would never admire them so much. About this time, some excellent antisceptical works made their appearance, particularly Reid's " Inquiry into the Human Mind."—Then it was that I began to have a little more confidence in my own judgment, when I found it confirmed by those, of whose abilities I did not entertain the least distrust. I reviewed my authors again with a very different temper of mind. A very little truth will sometimes enlighten a vast extent of science. I found that the sceptical philosophy was not what the world imagined it to be ; but a frivolous, though dangerous, system of verbal subtlety, which it required neither genius, nor learning, nor taste, nor knowledge of mankind, to be able to put together ; but only a captious temper, an irreligious spirit, a moderate command of words, and an extraordinary degree of vanity and presumption. You will easily perceive that I am speaking of this philosophy only in its most extravagant state, that is, as it appears in the works of Mr. Hume. The more I study it, the more am I confirmed in this opinion," &c.

The above extract discovers the origin of Beattie's philosphical works. Those which follow exhibit the first traces of his incomparable poem, " The Minstrel."

Dr. Beattie to Dr. Blacklock, 22 *Sept*. 1766.

****. " Not long ago I began a poem in the style and stanza of Spenser, in which I propose to give full scope to my inclination, and be either droll or pathetick, descriptive or sentimental, tender or satirical, as the humour strikes me ; for, if I mistake not, the manner, which I have adopted, admits equally of all these kinds of composition. I have written one hundred and fifty lines, and am surprised to find the structure of that complicated stanza so little troublesome. I was always fond of it ; for I think it the most harmonious that ever was contrived. It admits of more variety of pauses, than either the couplet, or the alternate rhyme ; and it concludes with a pomp, and majesty of sound, which, to my ear, is wonderfully delightful. It seems also very well adapted to the genius of our language, which, from its irregularity of inflexion, and number of monosyllables, abounds in diversified terminations, and consequently renders our poetry susceptible of an endless variety of legitimate rhymes. But

I am so far from intending this performance for the press, that I am morally certain it will never be finished. I shall add a stanza now and then, when I am at leisure, and when I have no humour for any other amusement; but I am resolved to write no more poetry with a view to publication, till I see some dawnings of a poetical taste among the generality of readers; of which, however, there is not at present any thing like an appearance."

To the same....20 *May*, 1767.

"My performance in Spenser's stanza has not advanced a single line, these many months. It is called "The Minstrel." The subject was suggested by a dissertation on the old minstrels, which is prefixed to a collection of ballads lately published by Dodsley, in three volumes.* I propose to give an account of the birth, education, and adventures of one of those bards; in which I shall have full scope for description, sentiment, satire, and even a certain species of humour and of pathos, which, in the opinion of my great master, are by no means inconsistent, as is evident from his works. My hero is to be born in the south of Scotland, which you know was the native land of the English Minstrels; I mean of those Minstrels, who travelled into England, and supported themselves there, by singing their ballads to the harp. His father is a shepherd. The son will have a natural taste for musick and the beauties of nature; which, however, languishes for want of culture, till in due time he meets with a hermit, who gives him some instruction; but endeavours to check his genius for poetry and adventures, by representing the happiness of obscurity and solitude, and the bad reception which poetry has met with in almost every age. The poor swain acquiesces in this advice, and resolves to follow his father's employment, when on a sudden the country is invaded by Danes, or English Borderers, (I know not which) and he is stripped of all his little fortune, and obliged by necessity to commence Minstrel. This is all that I have as yet concerted of the plan.† I have written 150 lines; but my hero is not yet born, though now in a fair way of being so; for his parents are described, and married. I know not whether I shall ever proceed any farther; however, I am not dissatisfied with what I have written."

In the course of two more years Beattie finished the first canto of this enchanting poem; and published it early in the spring of 1771. It instantly attracted the publick attention, and raised the author into the first ranks of fame. Gray praised it with a warm and disinterested energy; and it seemed to have electrified Lord Lyttleton, who spoke of it in a much higher tone of eloquence, than he was accustomed to reach. I cannot resist transcribing the short but beautiful letter here.

Lord Lyttleton to Mrs. Montagu, 8 *March*, 1771.

"I read your "Minstrel" last night, with as much rapture as poetry, in her noblest sweetest charms, ever raised in my soul. It seemed to me, that my once most beloved minstrel, Thomson, was come down from heaven, refined by the converse of purer spirits than those he lived with here, to let me hear him sing again the beauties of nature, and the finest feelings of virtue, not with human, but with angelick strains! I beg you to express my gratitude to the poet for the pleasure he has given me. Your eloquence alone can do justice to my sense of his admirable genius, and the excellent use he makes of it. Would it were in my power to do him any service!"*

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* The Reliques of ancient English poetry, by Dr. Percy, published in 1765.

† But he once afterwards told Sir W. Forbes, "he proposed to have introduced a foreign enemy as invading his country, in consequence of which The Minstrel was to employ himself in rousing his countrymen to arms." *Life*, *I*. 203. This was probably the result of his friend Gray's suggestion.

In a letter dated 6 July, 1772, the author declares that the second canto had been nearly finished these two years; but it was not published till 1774, accompanied by a new edition of the first canto.

In the mean time Beattie's domestick afflictions increased with his fame; and embittered the exquisite satisfaction, which he would otherwise have derived from the flattering station he now held in society. To these I think we must attribute the change of sentiments on a very important topick, which the latter part of the following most eloquent letter seems to discover.

Dr. Beattie to Mrs. Montagu, 26 *July*, 1773.

"Your most obliging and most excellent letter of the 14th current, bore the impression of Socrates on the outside. He, if I mistake not, piqued himself on having constantly resided in Athens, and used to say, that he found no instruction in stones or trees; but you, Madam, better skilled in the human heart, and more thoroughly acquainted with all the sublimest affections, do justly consider that quiet which the country affords, and those soothing and elevating sentiments, which "rural sights and rural sounds" so powerfully inspire, as necessary to purify the soul, and raise it to the contemplation of the first and greatest good. Yet, I think, you rightly determine, that absolute solitude is not good for us. The social affections must be cherished, if we would keep both mind and body in good health. The virtues are all so nearly allied, and sympathise so strongly with each other, that if one is borne down, all the rest feel it, and have a tendency to pine away. The more we love one another, the more we shall love our Maker: and if we fail in duty to our common parent, our brethren of mankind will soon discover that we fail in duty to them also.

"In my younger days I was much attached to solitude, and could have envied even "The Shepherd of the Hebride isles, placed far amid the melancholy main." I wrote Odes to Retirement, and wished to be conducted to its deepest groves, remote from every rude sound, and from every vagrant foot. In a word, I thought the most profound solitude the best. But I have now changed my mind. Those solemn and incessant energies of imagination, which naturally take place in such a state, are fatal to the health and spirits, and tend to make us more and more unfit for the business of life: the soul, deprived of those ventilations of passion, which arise from social intercourse, is reduced to a state of stagnation; and if she is not of a very pure consistence indeed, will be apt to breed within herself many "monstrous and many prodigious things," of which she will find it no easy matter to rid herself, even when she is become sensible of their noxious nature."

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* The Rev. Mr. Allison, the elegant author of "Essays on the Nature and Principles of Taste," and the husband of Dr. Gregory's daughter, feelingly observes, "I do not know any thing that Lord Lyttleton has written, that so strongly marks the sensibility and purity of his taste. The allusion to Thomson is singularly affecting, and constitutes the finest praise, that ever was bestowed on a poet."

I have no room here to enter into a disquisition upon the very interesting subject of solitude. The objections to it thus urged by Beattie deserve, no doubt, very serious consideration. But they do not convince me, expressed, as they are, in general terms. Nay, I confess I could have wished they had never appeared under this poet's authority; because they take something from the pleasure we feel in some of the finest passages of his best poems. For my part, it appears to me, that as long as God endows individuals with more energetick capacities, with more tender sensibilities, with higher hopes, and sublimer sentiments than the mass of mankind, so long must solitude be the proper sphere of their human existence. If it do tend to "make us unfit for the *business* of life," it fits us for something much better: for that intellectual eminence and purity of heart, which exalt our nature, and almost lift us into an higher order of beings; for those mental exertions, by which the heads and hearts of thousands have, century after century, been ameliorated, and drawn away from the low and selfish ambitions of the world; and by which nations have sometimes been electrified from their slumbers into efforts that have saved them from impending destruction! I am now older than Dr. Beattie was, when he expressed these sentiments, and I do not find that my love of solitude diminishes. I discover no "stagnation of the soul;" the day is not long enough for the enjoyment of my books, and those pure and innocent wanderings of the fancy, in which I delight; and in the deep woods and silent vallies, I find "no monsters" of horrour, which, alas! I too frequently meet in society, but on the contrary,

> "Resentment sinks; Disgust within me dies,
> And Charity, and meek Forgiveness rise,
> And melt my soul, and overflow mine eyes."

For the Monthly Anthology.

SILVA. *No.* 21.

> Huc vinæ, et unguenta et nimium breves
> Flores amœnæ ferre jube rosæ. HORACE.

A LADY'S FOOT.

WHAT in nature is so beautiful, so lovely, so tender, as the little foot of a fair lady! Surely this sweet part of the human form was made for execution, yet unknown. The hand is exercised by orators to give force to utterance, and strength to expressions of the strongest passions. In grief the hand is irresistibly drawn to the bosom, and its pressure gives relief. The finger pointed in scorn is the plainest signal of contempt, and the hands clasped and uplifted to heaven is the most solemn of all expressions. I have seen a sweet woman in grief, and there was more sorrow in the attitude of her hand, and more meekness and plaintiveness in a certain mournful position of her fingers, than in the holiness of her uplifted countenance, or in the tear-drops that hung on her eye-lashes. If the hand is so powerful and efficient an engine of the soul, why should the *foot* be considered merely the pedestal of the human statue? What gives the march to the hero, the stride to the conqueror, fleetness to the lover, and the bewitching balance of attitude to woman! Who knows

> The love that slumbers in a lady's foot?

If the cavalier throws himself at the feet of his mistress, why should not his lips press and breathe on them the spirit of love? Why should not his hand impart to them the thrillings of its touches? Oh, how have I started, and longed for a *molliter manus imposuit*, when I have beheld Crispin with his measure at the foot of a lady! Oh, how have I shuddered, when I have seen Bellinda's dear little foot sink forever out of sight in the pitchy abyss of his palm! Oh, how have I quaked, when I have seen the dear little thing swallowed up forever in the griping jaws of his fist! How, too, has my fancy caught fire, when sitting at an awful distance from Dorinda, I have espied this sweet little integer nestling and cuddling on her cricket! How has my imagination transformed the vile four-legged stool into a little shrine, and her foot into the offering of beauty to love!

FRENCH PREJUDICE.

The English criticks are not so full of prejudice in their literary opinions, as the French. It seems that the latter aspire to sovereignty in letters, as in arms. In both they are great; yet the field of literature they have not won from the English, and they ought to be ashamed, in such a noble and dignified contest, to take by fraud, what ought to be the reward of honourable warfare. The English extol the tragedies of Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire. Indeed, Adam Smith says, that the Phèdre is the most perfect tragedy that has ever been written. Johnson often praises Boileau, and Hume and Gibbon vitiated their style by devotion to French literature. The French have sometimes done justice to England; but we know that Mrs. Montague wrote a volume expressly to vindicate Shakespeare from the aspersions of Voltaire, and every reader of La Harpe regrets to see his mind poisoned by prejudice. From him Shakespeare and Milton receive little mercy, and when the critick is comparing the Lutrin of Boileau with Pope's Rape of the Lock, instead of accurately adjusting their respective merits, and impartially determining his opinion of Boileau's superiority from regular principles of criticism, he gives every merit to his countryman, and leaves poor Pope so naked, that, were his merits to rest on his mock-epick, he would make a prominent figure among the heroes of the Dunciad. Other instances might be mentioned, but it is unnecessary; the two nations have always been, secretly or openly, rivals and enemies, and there is no hope that this opposition will soon be changed. Perhaps this general animosity may have originated excellence in letters, as in war; and if we sigh for the misery, which the mutual hatred has occasioned, (which is commonly mere affectation) we may rejoice (perhaps with the joy of sincerity) that the same cause has produced poems, discourses, letters, and critical opinions, sparkling with sense, wit, and imagination.

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THE CLASSICK CLUB.

When Horace, Virgil, Varius, and Mecænas, used to meet to drink wine, after they had crowned their foreheads with roses and myrtles, there was a combination of intellect, devoted to revelry, which must have been very pleasant and interesting. Horace recited his charming odes, and entirely forgot his serious satires and gloomy lectures. Virgil chaunted his melodious poetry, and gave to his versification a grace, a tenderness, and harmony, which must have entranced the accordant minds of his poetical friends. What could be more delightful? Here were friendship, and roses, and wine, and poetry; the loveliness of morals, the luxury of the senses, and the enchantments of fancy. If they wanted pathos and deep sentiment, Varius could pour out the whole force of tragedy; critical taste and ingenuity sparkled from Mecænas; and good conversation and refined feelings directed and dignified the intercourse. The health of the emperour was a favourite toast. Homer, Anacreon, and Sophocles were the topicks of talk. Virgil would willingly declare, that if he was not superiour to the father of epick poetry, he might at least bear a comparison with him, to whom he need not be ashamed to be inferiour. Horace might jovially and honestly confess, that Anacreon could drink more wine, but that he was not a better poet than himself; and the noble Varius, while he secretly congratulated himself on an equality with the Grecian tragedians, could feel no despondency of mind for the accidents of time and the ravages of barbarians, which, by destroying his plays, have lessened the fame of the author, and obscured the reputation of the Roman stage. As for Mecænas, he was a gentleman, a critick, and a scholar. He was contented with quaffing his wine, or, if he thought of "being often in the mouths of men," his vanity was gratified in the pleasant recollection that Virgil and Horace had consecrated to him the greenest wreaths of friendship and poetry.

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CLEANLINESS.

A gentleman once told me, that cleanliness was nearly allied to godliness. This is rather bold; but as it might have originated from a nice sense of physical purity, I would not very harshly condemn it. I believe every one who practises cleanliness, will feel the excellent effects produced by a suitable attention to this minor virtue. The intellect is gratefully affected; the blood courses through the system, and gives vigour and activity. Beauty is also the consequence of purity. Cosmeticks only mar the skin. They destroy the swell of the muscles, and the clear blueness of the veins; they tear to pieces the nice net work of the skin, and reduce to dull uniformity of colour the various tints, which should illuminate the countenance. They also insinuate poison into the body, and soon the fine elasticity of the system gives way to morbid clayiness, and sluggish creeping of the blood succeeds to its former rushing and rapid activity. But look at a French woman, after she has come out of the bath. She is a perfect Venus, risen from the froth of the sea; a celestial light beams from her eyes; her lips breathe the fragrance of health, and her voice is sweeter than the musick of the Graces at the banquets of the Gods. Such are truly the divine effects of physical purity. The French women are almost amphibious, and this is one great reason why they are so beautiful. I am afraid my country-women are not entitled to high praise for regular attention to cleanliness. I indeed know some, who use the tepid bath and a clean napkin, instead of discolouring themselves with vile washes, dews, and creams from the perfumer; but are there not too many gentlemen and ladies, who pass many months, without feeling the luxury of complete purification? Were I to pursue the subject to niceness of detail, I should have a plenty of subject for many pages; but I hope that the neglect has rather arisen from forgetfulness and inattention, than from dislike to purity or sympathy with uncleanliness.

OUR COUNTRY.

A general inactivity is our reigning characteristick. We seem willing to creep along in mechanical routine, so that we very much resemble Dutchmen. As for chivalrous, generous policy in national councils it is so low, that it can find no "lower deep." In religion I love quietness, peaceableness, humility; and I hate the jarring of sects, and the noisy trampling of christian combatants. But in literature are there no hopes? Surely the descendants of Englishmen in America are not absolutely degenerate. The mother country is proud of her bench of learned bishops, of her retired scholars, and illustrious professors in both universities. But when they ask us, why do you not do something to spread the glory of the English language, we are silent, like slaves. We may say, *that we have cruise ships at the Philippines, and that our cannon has echoed among the ice islands, at either pole.* This is honourable, and tells our enterprise; but here the story ends, nor will I busily ask, if there are no spots and stains on our flag, which the waters of the oceans we traverse, could not efface. For myself, I think we ought to have produced a few scholars; in this opinion, however, all are not unanimous, but if they agree that poetry is natural to any country, we must be ashamed of our own. We boast of no epick, tragedy, comedy, elegies, poems, pastoral or amatory...but this field is all desart, a wide African sand garden, showing brambles, and rushes, and reeds.

BLUE STOCKING CLUB.

I know no lady in this town, and probably there is not one in the United States, to be compared with Mrs. Montague, at whose house in Portman-Square, London, the Blue Stocking Club used to meet. Yet there are ladies here, who might institute and preserve a literary converzazione on agreeable terms.—All mere fashionable women should be excluded, and let beauty and riches alone have no right of admission. Also let no fop saunter in the room, and bar the doors against insignificant animals, called puppies, and those brutes who resemble Yahoos. Thus some approaches might be made to refined conversation, and a pleasantness of intercourse be introduced, far beyond the present system of false courtesy, shameful anecdote, licentious inuendo, poisoned hints, and stabbing whispers, which now riot and rule at many of the vulgar and fashionable parties, which now dignify or disgrace this metropolis.

Women are beings of the highest consequence, and on them depends the healthiness or the contagion of social intercourse, they may be like angels of light, diffusing the influence of purity and goodness, or the active agents of misery and ruin. By a pleasant and refined socialness, between gentlemen and ladies of cultivated minds, the power of all would be communicated to each; manners would be improved; erroneous opinions would be corrected; morals might receive additional strength, and literature might be adorned with new fascinations.

WINTER EVENING.

I like to sit in my study in a winter evening, when the wind blows clear, and the fire burns bright. If I am alone, I sometimes love to muse loosely on a thousand flits of the imagination; to remark the gentle agitations of the flame; to eye the mouse, that listens at his knot hole, and then runs quick across the hearth; or dwell long on the singing of the wood, when the heat drives out the sap. I believe that such reverie softens the heart, while it relaxes the body, for thus the senses are gratified in miniature. In the fire I have the *softest colours, and the sweetest and most various undulations*, and in the gentle musick of the green stick there is melody for fairies. No sense is particularly excited by my silver grey, silken-footed, and crumb-nibbling animal, but perhaps he might teach me a lesson of prudence, not to set out on a journey, till I have inquired the dangers and difficulties of the way. While I am in this state of lonely musing, I sometimes lapse unknowingly into grief; for *my guardians are dead, and my friends are far from me*, my years are hastening away, "and evening with its hollow blast murmurs of pleasures never to return." But this state I do not like to indulge, for sorrow grows by musing: I therefore rouse myself from fears that dishearten, to studies that strengthen or exhilirate me; and when I have lighted a çigar, and put on more wood, I track Park to the banks of the Niger, or I mount the walls of Rome with "Bourbon and revenge," and close the evening with an act from Shakespeare, the best of poets and the wisest of writers.

RUINS OF THEBES, OR LUXORE.

In the distant periods of antiquity were founded the palaces and temples of Luxore. They now partly lie on the deserts of Upper Egypt, scattered into fragments and covered with rubbish, and partly they stand erect in the towering heights of solitary columns, the extensive ranges of imposing colonnades, or the unequalled magnitude of their sculptured sides. They attract, when in the horizon, the notice of scientifick travellers, and they serve as land-marks to caravans, and as habitations for the poor and the outcast. Thus have the exertions of architectural science contended against the slow unceasing efforts of time, and thus are the opulence of monarchs and the dignity of priesthood, commemorated in the ruined grandeur of churches and of courts. A traveller into Egypt for the purposes of science may honourably employ himself in measuring the dimensions of pillars, cielings, and walls, and a painter may communicate knowledge and pleasure by accurate representations of these monuments of decay; but the dignity of a philosopher is advanced in applying the memorials of art to subserve the moral duties of life, and his utility is exhibited in employing the materials, presented by a few, for the durable advantage of all. Our vanity is repressed by the consideration, that time has destroyed the names of the architects and founders of these mighty piles. Perhaps their titles and dignities were engraven on the corner stones; perhaps their offices were perpetuated to succeeding generations; and perhaps they welcomed and received the awful honours of adoration; but no historian has related their deeds, no poet has sung their praises, and irremediable oblivion covers their names, their virtues, and their crimes. Philosophy has determined that utility is the proper foundation of morals. If part of the time, the wealth, and the labour, which were expended on the architectural glories of Luxore, had been applied to the diffusion of knowledge and virtue, to the practical purposes of religion, and to the great objects of political œconomy, the happiness of the people would have ennobled the grandeur of the princes. We should then indeed have seriously regretted, that time has covered with a garment of darkness all their personal and moral attributes; and though massy walls and broken gateways would not now be the evidence of their magnificence; though they might not now be extolled as the benevolent guardians of the Theban people, yet philosophy would not be compelled to consider them as the ostentatious founders of perishable monuments, where robbers lurk for prey, and outlaws find protection. The nature of the subject easily allures a philosophick mind into various similar reflections, but the prescribed limits of this article will not authorise any further extension of remarks on the ancient glories or the present ruins of Luxore. But I cannot forbear to remark the superiority of genius over gigantick physical exertion. When Thebes existed in the splendid circumference of twenty-seven miles, the author of the Iliad represented the indignant Achilles, swearing in the following noble lines:

——————ὐδ' ὅσα Θήβας
Αἰγυπτίας, ὅθι πλεῖςα δόμοις ἐν κτήματα
κεῖται,
Αἵ θ' ἑκατόμπυλοί εἰσι, διηκόσιοι δ' ἀν'
ἑκάστην
'Ανέρες ἐξοιχνεῦσι σὺν ἵπποισιν καὶ ὄχεσφιν. Il. 9,381.

Not all proud Thebes' unrivalled walls
contain,
The world's great empress on the
Egyptian plain;
That spreads her conquests o'er a thousand states
And pours her heroes through a hundred gates,
Two hundred horsemen and two hundred cars
From each wide portal issuing to the
wars. Pope's Trans.

Now this city of the gods has dwindled to a few mouldering ruins, but the Iliad flourishes in unfading purity, and with increasing honours. Nor should the advocate of Homer's greatness refrain from recording the obligations, which opulence and power owe to enterprise and learning; for if the priests and monarchs of Thebes were secretly compelled by reflection to acknowledge, that the corrosion of time and the ravages of war might in future ages destroy their temples and palaces, they would have rejoiced in triumphs and feasts, had their imagination suggested the hope, that some of their columns, vestibules, and halls, would have been illustrated and perpetuated in the learned travels of Norden and Pococke. Q.

Nov. 24, 1806.

For the Anthology.

We feel a sincere pleasure in an opportunity of inviting our readers to the works of an original writer. They form a rare curiosity in the modern Lyceum, which invention has stocked with monsters, and where plagiarism has exhausted her powers in deforming, what she could not disguise. The essays of Mr. Foster exhibit in all the novelties of genius the vestiges of Nature, which, among the paste-board scenery and painted passions of our mechanick scribblers, is as delightful,as a rude rock and wild oak,among the chinese gardens and smooth-shaven lawns. Mr. Foster has certainly thought much, which is a peculiarity in our times, when books have supplied the place of reflection,and the writings of others have supplanted our own conceptions and judgment. His researches have not been directed by a wish to gain the authority of great names, but to make his own name an authority for his own sentiments. He has not laboured to give form and system to the suggestions of others, but to develope and impress his own sentiments. His energy supports him through an enterprize, in which he demands submission to his doctrines, and enforces his demand by his own resources. Mr. Foster writes as he thinks. He has expressed bold thoughts in the words, in which they were conceived. His arguments are supported by the language, in which they controled his own judgment. His opinions, in the moment of their conception sturdy as Hercules in the cradle, he has not cramped into form and symmetry with the swaddling bands of rhetorick. His style exhibits the manly majesty of a giant in the games, who challenges superiority more from the vigour of his muscles, than excellence in the art. He has all the ease of courage without the grace of taste. The letter we have selected, as a specimen of his style and sentiments, forms a part of his essay "On decision of character." After considering the evils of an unsettled and irresolute mind, and the advantages of a firm and settled pur purpose, he proceeds to examine the elements, which compose a decided character. The third letter contains part of this examination.

ON DECISION OF CHARACTER.

This indispensable basis, confidence of opinion, is however not enough to constitute the character in question. For there have been many persons of clear independent understanding, who have been sensible and proud of a much harder grasp of thought than ordinary men, and have held the most decided opinions on important things to be done, who have yet exhibited, in the listlessness or inconstancy of their actions, a contrast and a disgrace to the operations of their understandings. For want of some cogent feeling impelling them toward the practical assertion of every internal decision, they have been still left where they were; and a dignified judgment has been seen in the hapless plight of having no effective forces to execute its decrees.

It is evident then, and I perceive I have partly anticipated this article in the first letter, that another essential principle of the character is, a total incapability of surrendering to indifference, or delay the serious determinations of the mind. A strenuous will must attend on the conclusions of thought, and constantly, as they are matured, go forth to the accomplishment of them with a nervous agency which nothing can divert or control. The intellect of such a man is invested, if I may so describe it, with a glowing atmosphere of passion, under the influence of which the cold dictates of reason take fire,& spring into active powers, Revert once more in your thoughts to the persons most remarkably distinguished by this decision. You will perceive that instead of quiescently regarding the conclusions, which reason has undergone some labour to form, as an apology for labouring no further, they consider them simply as the preparation for experimental enterprise, and as of no more worth, till so employed, than the entombed lamps of the Rosicrucians. They cannot be content long in a region of such tenuity, as that of mere intellectual arrangements: they go thither, as an ambitious adventurer anciently went to Delphi, to consult, but not to reside. You will therefore find them almost uniformly in determined pursuit of some object, on which they fix a keen and steady look, and which they never lose sight of, while they follow it through the innumerable multitude and confusion of other things, of which the world is full. They pursue it, as a sportsman does a fox, at all hazards, over hill and dale and brook, through wood and brake and every where; and they will grasp it at length unless it go into the earth.

The manner of a person actuated by such a spirit, seems to say,...Do you think that I would not disdain to adopt a purpose which I would not devote my utmost force to effect, or that, having thus devoted my exertions, I will intermit or withdraw them, through indolence, debility, or caprice, or that I will surrender my object to any interference except the uncontrollable dispensations of Providence? No, I am linked to my determination with iron bands; my purpose is become my fate, and I must accomplish it, unless arrested by the sterner force of calamity or death.

This display of systematick energy seems to indicate a constitution of mind, in which the passions are exactly commensurate with the intellectual part, and, at the same time, hold an inseparable correspondence with it, like the faithful sympathy of the tides with the phases of the moon. There is such an equality and connexion, that subjects of the decisions of judgment become proportionally and of course the objects of passion. When the judgment decides with a very strong preference, that same strength of preference takes place also on the passions, and becomes intense devotion. If this strong preference of judgment continues, the passions will therefore be fixed at a pitch of constant energy, and this will produce the style of conduct which I have described. When, therefore, a firm self-confiding judgment fails to make a decisive character, it is evident, that either there is in that mind a deficient measure of passion, which makes an indolent or irresolute man; or that the passions perversely sometimes coincide with judgment and sometimes desert it, which makes an inconsistent or versatile man.

There is no man so irresolute as not to act with determination in many single cases, where the motive is powerful and simple, and where there is no need of plan and perseverance; but this gives no claim to the term Character, which expresses the habitual tenour of a man's active being. The character may be displayed in the successive unconnected undertakings which are each of limited extent, and end with the attainment of their objects. But it is seen to the greatest advantage in those grand schemes of action, which have no necessary period of conclusion, which continue onward through successive years, and extend even to that frontier of darkness, where the acting spirit itself becomes invisible.

I have repeatedly remarked to you, in conversation, the effect of what has been called a Ruling Passion. When its object is noble, and an enlightened understanding directs its movements, it appears to me a great felicity; but whether its object be noble or not, it infallibly creates, where it exists in great force, that active ardent constancy which I describe as a capital feature of the decisive character. The subject of such a commanding passion wonders, if indeed he were at leisure to wonder, at the persons who pretend to attach importance to an object which they make none but the most languid efforts to secure. The utmost powers of the man are constrained into the service of the favourite cause by this mighty passion, which sweeps away as it advances all the trivial objections and little opposing motives, and seems almost to open a way through impossibilities. This spirit comes on him in the morning, as if it darted directly from the clouds, and commands and impels him through the day with a power from which he could not emancipate himself if he would. When the force of habit is added, the determination becomes altogether invincible, and seems to assume rank with the great laws of nature, making it as certain that such a man will persist in his course, as that in the morning the sun will rise.

A persisting untameable efficacy of soul gives a seductive and pernicious dignity, even to a character and a course, which every moral principle forbids us to approve. Often in the narrations of history and fiction, an agent of the most dreadful designs compels a sentiment of deep respect for the unconquerable mind displayed in their execution. While we shudder at his activity, we say with regret, mingled with an admiration which borders on partiality,...What a noble being this would have been, if goodness had been his destiny. The partiality is evinced in the very selection of terms by which we refer his atrocity, rather to his destiny, than to his choice. I wonder whether an emotion, like this, has not been experienced by each reader of Paradise Lost, relative to the leader of infernal spirits; a proof, if such were the fact, that a very serious errour has been committed in the tremendous creations of the supreme poet. In some of the high examples of ambition, we almost revere the mighty spring of character which impelled them forward through the longest series of action, superiour to doubt and fluctuation, and disdainful of ease, of pleasures, of opposition, and of hazard. We bow to the ambitious spirit which reached the true sublime, in the memorable reply of Pompey to his friends, who dissuaded him from venturing without delay, on a tempestuous sea, in order to be at Rome on an important occasion: "It is necessary for me to go, it is not necessary for me to live."

The spirit of revenge has produced wonderful examples of this unremitting constancy to a purpose. Zanga is a well-supported illustration. And you may have read a real instance of, I think, a Spaniard, who being injured by another inhabitant of the same town, resolved to destroy him: the other was apprized of this determination, and removed, with the utmost secrecy as he thought, to another town, at a considerable distance, where, however, he had not been more than a day or two, before he found that his enemy was arrived there. He removed in the same manner to several parts of the kingdom remote from each other; but, in every place, quickly perceived that his deadly pursuer was near him. At last, he went to South America; where he had enjoyed his fancied security but a very short time, before his unrelenting enemy came up with him, and effected his tragical purpose.

*****. But not less of this invincible pertinacity has been displayed by the disciples of virtue and the benefactors of mankind. In this distinction, no man ever exceeded or ever will exceed our great philanthropist, the late illustrious Howard. The energy of his determination was so great, that if, instead of being habitual, it could have appeared in an intermitted form, operating only for a short time, on particular occasions, it would have seemed a vehement impetuosity; but by being continuous, it had an equability of manner, which scarcely appeared to exceed the tone of a calm constancy. It was the calmness of an intensity, kept uniform by the nature of the human mind forbidding it to be more, and the character of the individual forbidding it to be less. The habitual passion of his mind was a measure of feeling, almost equal to the temporary extremes and paroxysms of common minds: as a great river, in its customary state, is equal to a small or moderate one, when swollen to a torrent.

The moment of finishing his plans in deliberation, and commencing them in action, was the same. I wonder what must have been the amount of that bribe, in emolument or pleasure, that would have detained him a week inactive, after their final adjustment. The law which carries water down a declivity was not more unconquerable and invariable, than the determination of his feelings toward the main object. This object he pursued with a devotion, which seemed to annihilate to his perceptions all others; it was a stern pathos of soul, on which the beauties of nature and of art had no power. He had no leisure feeling, which he could spare, to be diverted among the innumerable varieties of the extensive scene, which he traversed; all his subordinate feelings lost their separate existence and operation, by falling into the grand one. There have not been wanting trivial minds to mark this as a fault in his character. But the mere man of taste ought to be silent respecting such a man as Howard; he is above their sphere of judgment. The invisible spirits, who fulfil their commission of philanthropy among mortals, do not care about pictures, statues, and sumptuous buildings; ...no more did he. Or at least, regarding every moment as under the claims of imperious duty, his curiosity waited in vain for the hour to come, when his conscience should present the gratification of it as the most sacred duty of that hour. If he was still at every hour, where it came, fated to feel the attractions of the fine arts but the second claim, they might be sure of their revenge, for no other man will ever visit Rome under such a despotick consciousness of duty, as to refuse himself time for surveying the magnificence of its ruins. Such a sin against taste is very far beyond the reach of common saintship to commit. It implied an inconceivable severity of conviction, that he had *one thing to do*; and that he, who would do some great thing in this short life, must apply himself to the work with such a concentration of his forces, as, to idle spectators, who live only to amuse themselves, looks like insanity.

His attention was so strongly and tenaciously fixed on his object, that even at the greatest distance, like the Egyptian pyramids to travellers, it stood confest to his sight with a luminous distinctness, as if it were nigh, and beguiled the toilsome length of labour and enterprise, by which he was to reach it. It was so conspicuous before him, that not a step deviated from the direction, and every movement and every day was an approximation. If it were possible to deduct from his thoughts and actions all that portion, which had not a methodical and strenuous reference to an end, the solid mass, which would remain, would spread over an amazing length of life, if attenuated to the ordinary style of deliberation and achievement. One less thinks of displaying such a character, for the purpose of example, than for that of mortifying comparison.

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*****. Lady Macbeth may be cited as a harmonious character, though the epithet seems strangely applied. She had capacity, ambition, and courage; and she willed the death of the king. But he had, besides humanity, generosity, conscience, and some measure of what forms the power of conscience, the fear of a Superiour Being. Consequently, when the dreadful moment approached, he felt an insupportable conflict between these opposite principles, and when it was arrived, his utmost courage failed. The worse part of his nature fell prostrate under the power of the better; the angel of goodness arrested the demon that grasped the dagger, and would have taken that dagger away, if the pure demoniack firmness of his wife, who had none of these counteractive principles, had not shamed and hardened him to the deed.

The poet's delineation of Richard III. (I better remember the poet's account of him than the historian's,) gives a dreadful specimen of this indivisibility, if I may so name it, of mental impulse. After his determination was fixed, his whole mind, with the compactest fidelity, supported him in prosecuting it. Securely privileged from all interference of doubt that could linger, or humanity that could soften, or timidity that could shrink, he advanced with a grim concentrated constancy, through scene after scene of atrocity, still fulfilling his vow to "cut his way through with a bloody axe." He did not waver while he pursued his object, nor relent when he seized it.

POETRY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

TO W——— C———, JUN., Newport.

BOSTON, SEPT. 6TH, 1806.

……………………………………Tu mitis, et acri
Asperitate carens, positoque per omnia fastu,
Inter ut æquales unus numeraris amicos:
Obsequiumque doces, et amorem quaeris amando. LUCAN.

HAIL, absent friend! not absent from my soul,
Though mountains rise, and floods between us roll.
Though life no more thy little bark should steer,
Still mem'ry's pencil would depict thee here;
Her well known art, her darling task renew,
And each bold feature brighten into view.

The flow'rs of Friendship rarely blossom here,
Exotick plants are difficult to rear.
Too cold the soil, they pine in swift decay;
And if too warm, in languishment away.
'Tis Merchant's land! Here Genius never sprung,
Nor flourish'd friendship, nor the sons of song;
For such *vile weeds*, why turn the wealthy soil?
When *golden apples* grow with half the toil.

Though the pale miser gaze upon his store,
So vastly great he could not wish for more;
Though mine were all the treasure that I see;
Ev'n though Pactolus flow'd for only me;
Forgive, ye Gods, I ask for greater wealth,
Grant me a friend with competence and health.
The friend, I ask, is no mechanick tool,
To sneeze like me, like me to play the fool;
Not a mere posy, born to give away,
To blossom, bear, and wither in a day.
Nor that strange being, counterfeiting man,
Built, for some whim, on Nature's narr'west plan;
Who loves you dearly as a brother could,
Yet groans in spirit, if your jokes are good;
Admires your trifles, yet would kindly hint,
" If he were you, he thinks he would not print."
Pale imp of envy! child of self distress,
Who gets his death from other's happiness——
Ne'er may I know that sycophantick tribe,
Who flatter, perjure, poison, for a bribe.
Harpies, who Friendship's sacred fane defile,
Who rob by words, and ruin with a smile.
Busy, like bees, round wealthy heirs they fly,
Extract the sweets, and leave the flow'rs to die.
Such, such are they who flutter round the great,
Who bask in pomp, and buz about in state;
Dealers in air; these empty fools rely
On one sad choice, to flatter or to die.

Give me the friend, whom vivid genius fires,
Whom judgment tempers, and the Muse inspires.
Though learn'd, yet tinctur'd never let him be
With proud contempt for those less learn'd than he.

Though fortune spread few favours at his door,
Let not ambition move one sigh for more.
Frank to his friend; (nor would he fail to please,
Though free from ribbons, careless of Degrees)
Brave in his cause, when wrong'd by men of sense,
But not tenacious of a fool's offence;
Let him regard not censors in the streets,
Nor heed each *manger-puppy* that he meets.
Candid his censure all my faults to show,
Nor yet unwilling all his own to know;
Let not his heart, in pitying weakness, spare,
But still let feeling hold a mansion there.—
Say, lives the friend in whom these virtues shine?
Thanks to the Gods, for such a friend is mine! "S."

For the Monthly Anthology.

TO POVERTY.

O POVERTY! hard-featured dame,
Whence grow the terrours of thy name?
'*Tis said*, that from thy serious eye
The laughing Train of Pleasures fly;
That, deep within thy mansion rude,
Lurks the black fiend, Ingratitude;
That Toil, and Want, and Shame, are known
To make thy heartless hours their own,
Till Guilt,—his frenzied eye on fire,—
Bids thy last famish'd Hope expire:
Thus speaks the world,—to Mammon true,—
While wrongs thy pleading worth pursue.

To me,—*and I have seen thee near*,—
Though harsh thy withering look appears,
Though stern the Teachers of the Poor,
And hard the lesson *to endure*;
Yet many a virtue, born of thee,
Lives sunder'd from Prosperity,
Religion, which on Heaven relies,
The moral of thy mind supplies;
Pity, with plaintive accent kind,
And *Patience*, to her fate resign'd,
Content thy lowly cot to share,
With *Temperance*, dwell as inmates there;
Love join'd by *Truth*; no rival's eye
Wakes to the wish of Poverty:
Yet all the bless'd Affections twine
Round many a rustick haunt of thine,
Close circling, with the nuptial tie,
Joys, which a monarch could not buy.

Though boonless, and to praise unknown,
Oft is the lustred life thy own;
To thee the Priests of God belong;
Thine is the Poet's deathless song;
Thee toiling *Science* lives to claim,
Thou lead'st his thorny steps to Fame;
CREATIVE GENIUS feels thy power
Coeval with his natal hour,
On him the rays of glory shine
Too late—his parting breath is thine.

Let me thy simple glances meet
Near the green hamlet's calm retreat,
Not where the city, throng'd with sin,
Bids all the monster Crimes begin,
Thence will thy timid Virtues fly,
Lured by Seduction's serpent eye;
Thy fate each murdered Hope to see,
While every suffering lives to thee.

Not that along the wintry shore
The fisher plies the wearied oar;
Not that amid the sultry plain
The peasant piles the labour'd grain,
Wilt thou, with frowning brow appear,
To wring the grief-extorted tear:
But, when to wrongs thy sufferings lead,
While Shame and false Reproach succeed;
When *Genius*, doom'd with thee to mourn,
Sees his unshelter'd laurels torn,
While *ignorant Malice* rushes by,
Quick glancing with insidious eye;
When all thy cultur'd virtues move
Nor sense to feel, nor heart to love,
While *Treachery*, under Friendship's guise,
Bids the pernicious falsehood rise,
Still aiming, with envenom'd dart,
To reach the life-pulse of thy heart;
Then, POVERTY, hard-featured dame,
I feel the miseries of thy claim,
Would from thy close embraces fly,
Or 'mid their palsied pressure die.

CAMBRIA.

SELECTIONS.

From "Poems by James Montgomery."

THE OCEAN.

Written at Scarborough, in the Summer of 1806.

ALL hail to the ruins,* the rocks and the shores!
Thou wide-rolling OCEAN, all hail!
Now brilliant with sun-beams, and dimpled with oars,
Now dark with the fresh-blowing gale,
While soft o'er thy bosom the cloud-shadows sail,
And the silver-wing'd sea-fowl on high,
Like meteors bespangle the sky,
Or dive in the gulph, or triumphantly ride,
Like foam on the surges, the swans of the tide.
From the tumult and smoke of the city set free,
With eager and awful delight,
From the crest of the mountain I gaze upon thee;
I gaze,—and am changed at the sight;
For mine eye is illumined, my Genius takes flight,
My soul, like the sun, with a glance
Embraces the boundless expanse,
And moves on thy waters, wherever they roll,
From the day-darting zone to the night-brooding pole.
My spirit descends where the day-spring is born,
Where the billows are rubies on fire,
And the breezes that rock the light cradle of morn
Are sweet as the Phœnix's pyre:
O regions of beauty, of love, and desire!
O gardens of Eden! in vain
Placed far on the fathomless main,
Where Nature with Innocence dwelt in her youth,
When pure was her heart, and unbroken her truth.

But now the fair rivers of Paradise wind
Through countries and kingdoms o'erthrown;

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* Scarboro' Castle.

Where the Giant of tyranny crushes mankind,
Where he reigns,—and will soon reign alone,
For wide and more wide o'er the sun-beaming zone,
He stretches his hundred-fold arms,
Despoiling, destroying its charms ;
Beneath his broad footstep the Ganges is dry,
And the mountains recoil from the flash of his eye.

Thus the pestilent Upas, the hydra of trees,
Its boughs o'er the wilderness spreads,
And with livid contagion polluting the breeze
Its mildewing influence sheds ;
The birds on the wing, and the flowers in their beds,
Are slain by its venomous breath,
That darkens the noon-day with death,
And pale ghosts of Travellers wander around,
While their mouldering skeletons whiten the ground.

Ah ! why hath Jehovah, in forming the world,
With the waters divided the land,
His ramparts of rocks round the continent hurl'd,
And cradled the deep in his hand ?
If man may transgress his eternal command,
And leap o'er the bounds of his birth
To ravage the uttermost earth,
And violate nations and realms that should be
Distinct as the billows, yet one as the sea !

There are, gloomy Ocean ! a brotherless clan,
Who traverse thy banishing waves,
The poor disinherited outcasts of man,
Whom Avarice coins into slaves ;
From the homes of their kindred, their forefathers' graves,
Love, friendship, and conjugal bliss,
They are dragg'd on the hoary abyss ;
The shark hears their shrieks, and ascending to-day,
Demands of the spoiler his share of the prey.

Then joy to the tempest that whelms them beneath,
And makes their destruction its sport !
But woe to the winds that propitiously breathe,
And waft them in safety to port !
Where the vultures and vampires of Mammon resort ;
Where Europe exultingly drains
Her cordials from Africa's veins ;
Where the image of God is accounted as base,
And the image of Cæsar set up in its place !

The hour is approaching,—a terrible hour !
And Vengeance is bending her bow ;
Already the clouds of the hurricane lour,
And the rock-rending whirlwinds blow ;
Back rolls the huge Ocean,—Hell opens below ;
The floods return headlong,——they sweep
The slave-cultur'd lands to the deep ;
In a moment entomb'd in the horrible void,
By their Maker Himself in his anger destroy'd.

Shall this be the fate of the cane-planted isles,
More lovely than clouds in the west,
When the sun o'er the ocean descending in smiles
Sinks softly and sweetly to rest ?
—NO !—Father of Mercy ! befriend the opprest ;
At the voice of thy gospel of peace
May the sorrows of Africa cease ;
And the slave and his master devoutly unite
To walk in thy freedom, and dwell in thy light !*

As homeward my weary-wing'd Fancy extends
Her star-lighted course thro' the skies,
High over the mighty Atlantic ascends,
And turns upon Europe her eyes ;
Ah me ! what new prospects, new horrours arise !
I see the war-tempested flood
All foaming, and panting with blood ;
The panick-struck Ocean in agony roars,
Rebounds from the battle, and flies to his shores.
For Britannia is wielding her trident to-day,
Consuming her foes in her ire,
And hurling her thunder with absolute sway
From her wave-ruling chariots of fire :
—She triumphs ;—the winds and the waters conspire
To spread her invincible name ;
The universe rings with her fame ;
....

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* Alluding to the glorious success of the Moravian Missionaries among the negroes in the West Indies.

—But the cries of the fatherless mix with her praise,
And the tears of the widow are shed on her bays!

O Britain! dear Britain! the land of my birth!
O Isle, most enchantingly fair!
Thou Pearl of the Ocean! Thou Gem of the Earth!
O my Mother! my Mother! beware;
For wealth is a phantom, and empire a snare:
O let not thy birth-right be sold
For reprobate glory and gold:
Thy foreign dominions like wild graftings shoot,
They weigh down thy trunk,—they will tear up thy root:—

The root of thine OAK, O my country! that stands
Rock-planted, and flourishing free;
Its branches are stretch'd over far-distant lands,
And its shadow eclipses the sea:
The blood of our ancestors nourish'd the tree;
From their tombs, from their ashes it sprung;
Its boughs with their trophies are hung;
Their spirit dwells in it:—and hark! for it spoke;
The voice of our Fathers ascends from their oak.

"Ye Britons! who dwell where we conquer'd of old,
Who inherit our battle-field graves;
Though poor were your Fathers,—gigantick and bold,
We were not, we would not be slaves;
But firm as our rocks, and as free as our waves,
The spears of the Romans we broke,
We never stoop'd under their yoke;
In the shipwreck of nations we stood up alone,
—The world was great Cæsar's—but Britain our own.

"For ages and ages, with barbarous foes,
The Saxon, Norwegian, and Gaul,
We wrestled, were foil'd, were cast down, but we rose
With new vigour, new life from each fall;
By all we were conquer'd:—WE CONQUER'D THEM ALL!
—The cruel, the cannibal mind,
We soften'd, subdued, and refined;
Bears, wolves, and sea-monsters, they rush'd from their den;
We taught them, we tamed them, we turn'd them to men.

"Love led the wild hordes in his flower-woven bands,
The tenderest, the strongest of chains!
Love married our hearts, he united our hands,
And mingled the blood in our veins;
One race we became:—on the mountains and plains
Where the wounds of our country were closed,
The Ark of Religion reposed,
The unquenchable Altar of Liberty blazed,
And the Temple of Justice in Mercy was raised.

"Ark, Altar, and Temple we left with our breath,
To our children, a sacred bequest!
O guard them, O keep them, in life and in death:
So the shades of your fathers shall rest,
And your spirits with ours be in paradise blest:
—Let Ambition, the sin of the Brave,
And Avarice, the soul of a Slave,
No longer seduce your affections to roam
From Liberty, Justice, Religion, AT HOME!"

THE FOWLER.

A Song; altered from a German air, in the opera of "Die Zauberlôte."

A CARELESS, whistling Lad am I,
On sky-lark wings my moments fly;
There's not a FOWLER more renown'd
In all the world—for ten miles round!
Ah! who like me can spread the net?
Or tune the merry flageolet:
Then, why, O! why should I repine,
Since all the roving birds are mine?

The thrush and linnet in the vale,
The sweet sequester'd nightingale,
The bullfinch, wren, and woodlark, all
Obey my summons when I call:
O! could I form some cunning snare
To catch the coy, coquetting fair,
In CUPID's filmy web so fine,
The pretty girls should all be mine!

When all were mine,—among the rest,
I'd choose the Lass I liked the best,
And should my charming mate be kind,
And smile and kiss me to my mind,
With her I'd tie the nuptial knot,
Make HYMEN's cage of my poor cot,
And love away this fleeting life,
Like Robin Redbreast and his wife!

THE BOSTON REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere vero assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——PLINY.

ARTICLE 60.

A new translation with notes, of the third Satire of Juvenal. To which are added, miscellaneous poems, original and translated.—New-York, printed by S. Gould for Ezra Sargeant. 12*mo. pp.* 200. 1806.

THIS volume is introduced by a letter from a friend, who condemns the whole mass of American poetry in a manner, which gives us reason to expect, that the translator is to appear elevated far above the common herd, and to stand forth as the deliverer of the American Muse from that state of durance and abjection, in which she has so long remained. "*The Conquest of Canaan*; *Greenfield-Hill*, *McFingal*, *The Vision of Columbus*, and *The Progress of Genius*," are among the works which incur his censure. "These and others which might be cited, he remarks, lived very harmlessly, and suffered little injury; they offended no one, and no person felt disposed to offer violence to them; and as they lived peaceably, so they died quietly. Let us not therefore presume to trouble their repose." "*The Power of Solitude*" has not escaped our epistolary critick. But, however faulty the passage he has selected for his remarks, the reader will not think his apprehension, lest he should appear somewhat "hypercritical," altogether groundless.

We could say something in praise of *McFingal* and the *Vision of Columbus*, were this the place to appear as their advocates. We could say much of the *peculiar propriety* of denouncing such performances in a preliminary epistle to one of the humbler satires of Juvenal, and some smaller poems, not more in bulk, than a few columns of an ordinary newspaper would afford. We could say still more of the *modesty* of the *author* in admitting this rude and indiscriminate attack upon his predecessors and superiours. But this modern Achilles is not rendered altogether invulnerable by the waters of adulation, in which, through paternal (we presume) rather than parental tenderness, he has been faithfully immersed. Nor has this process given him that confidence in his own prowess which it seems designed to have afforded. He has generally yielded the precedency to Mr. Gifford, and he has not been scrupulous in following his interpretations, and frequently borrowing his rhymes, and copying his verses with little variation of language. From a very cursory comparison of the two translations we have selected a few, out of numerous examples, to evince the correctness of our assertions.

At folly's whims their hands applauding raise. *Anonymous.* v. 156.

At deeds of shame their hands admiring raise. GIFFORD. 162.

........Undoubting, throws away,
For one embrace, a tribune's ample pay.
Anon. 190.

........These, forsooth, can fling away
On Catiene a tribune's ample pay.
GIF. 206.

Quit, quit those benches, angry Lectius cries,
Those benches are the knights', nay, quick arise. *Anon.* 218.

Up, up! those cushion'd benches, Lectius cries,
Are not for such as you; for shame! arise. GIF. 234.

The chances of the town then all bewail,
When all at fires with double hatred rail.
Still flames the pile, when lo! the flatterers haste,
And pour their riches to supply the waste. *Anon.* 313.

All join to wail the city's hapless fate,
And rail at fire with more than common hate.
Lo! while it burns the obsequious courtiers haste
With rich materials to repair the waste.
GIF. 324.

To rail *at* fires must be somewhat awkward and uncomfortable; and the declaimer, who should be overheard *reproaching with insolence* the aspiring flames, instead of using his exertions to extinguish them, would do it at the hazard of being ridiculous.

A sweet retreat at smaller cost than here
Thou hir'st a dungeon for a single year.
Anon. 329.

Some elegant retreat for what will here
Scarce hire a gloomy dungeon for a year. GIF. 340.

Much could I add, more reasons could I cite
To justify my hate and urge my flight.
Anon. 460.

Much could I add to prove this exile right,
And make you own the justice of my flight. GIF. 478.

Farewell, my friend, farewell; yet, ere we part,
I charge you bear me mindful on your heart. *Anon.* 465.

Farewell, my friend; with this embrace we part;
Cherish my memory ever in your heart.
GIF. 484.

No one will contend that these and numerous other resemblances of the same kind could be mere accidental coincidences. The same sentiment, circumscribed within the same limits, in similar language, and the same rhyming words, and admission even of the same peculiarities of expression, are sufficient proofs of our author's freedom with Mr. Gifford. There are other more trifling marks of imitation, on which we shall not dwell; such as similar expletives, and exclamatory phrases in parallel passages; as, ye Gods! for Mr. G.'s heavens! both equally unauthorised by Juvenal; and a resemblance in a construction of the verses of the two authors in the translation of the same passages.

The author of the translation before us has ascribed no particular character to his work; and indeed it is difficult to ascertain it very exactly. He is seldom scrupulously faithful to Juvenal, and generally loses those finer parts, which make the very spice of satire. He would seem quite unaspiring in his views; for he *presumes not to enter the lists with Mr. Gifford*. We cannot suspect him of such an intention. He is not sufficiently independent for a rival. He has a guide of whom he rarely loses sight; for he generally follows where Gifford leads. His apology for publishing is one, which we have heard before, but wish *never* to hear again. It is, that the production is American. By admitting such an apology as this, we should concede that every literary man among us writes for a very inferiour order of readers. We are of the number, who value a book according to its abstract merit; and have too much pride to listen with patience to writers, who, in the style of our author, undervalue their countrymen so much, as to tell them, in effect, the specimens we give you from our literary mines will doubtless be esteemed precious by *you*, but in England they would be ranked among the baser metals. The republick of letters, as it has been termed, especially as including nations, speaking a common language, is *one and indivisible.* There is an universality in its laws, which no minor portion of it has a right to violate; and it is absurd to affix different standards of good writing, where all have access to the same principles, and all are ultimately liable to be arraigned before the same tribunals.

Without presuming to guess what freedom the unknown translator proposed to himself in his undertaking, we shall first select one or two passages in which we find more of our author, than of Juvenal.

According to Juvenal, Umbritius, after satirizing several vices prevalent at Rome, which *he* detested, and with which he was not himself conversant, adds,

Quis nunc diligitur, nisi conscius, et cui fervens
Æstuat occultis animus, semperque tacendis? Ver. 49.

But whilst the great my zeal and service scorn,
What virtues, say, the chosen friend adorn,
To whom they dare the secret soul reveal?
The holy league by mutual guilt they seal;
He shares the heart in these polluted times,
Whose conscience pants with secret, nameless crimes. Ver. 75.

The simple inquiry is, *who is now in favour, except the man whose breast is tormented with secret crimes, which he never dares disclose?* But our translator makes the virtuous and voluntary exile complain of the contempt, which his *zeal and services* had met with, and talks of the *holy league* (of scoundrels) sealed by mutual guilt, &c.; all which freedom may answer very well for paraphrase, but is no property of a translation.

Another selection which we make is the conclusion of a passage, which describes the venal state of Rome, and the universal power of bribery in the purchase of favour and security.

Plena domus libis venalibus; accipe, et istud
Fermentum tibi habe: præstare tributa clientes
Cogimur, et cultis augere peculia servis.
Ver. 187.

The clients run and all their presents bear.
'Tis thus the fav'rite swells his growing store,
Receiving still and asking still for more;
For since these slaves alone the patron sway,
This is a tax we all are forced to pay.
Ver. 270.

Without remarking upon the translator's neglect of the first part of the original here quoted, of which kind of neglect we shall cite some other examples presently, we cannot but notice the wonderful fermentation of the latter part of this passage in its progression into English. Far be it from us to question our author's skill in his *laboured commentary* and *subtle in-*

ference; but it is Juvenal whom we wish to hear, and not the loquacious paraphrast, nor the acute logician.

There are here and there passages, which the translator has seen fit to pass over unnoticed; sometimes probably to aid his metrical arrangement, and sometimes, perhaps, from a little embarrassment in obtaining the sense.

Thus in the 14th line, *quorum cophinus foenumque supellex*, which Mr. Gifford translates,

> "Whose wealth is but a basket stuffed with hay,"

is entirely omitted. Again,

> ....*domus interea secura patellas*
> *Jam lavat, et buccâ foculum excitat, et sonat unctis*
> *Strigilibus; et pleno componit lintea gutto.*
> *Hæc inter pueros varie prop*[illegible]*ntur.*
> Ver. 261.

> His fellow slaves, meanwhile exempt from care,
> With fruitless haste their several tasks prepare. *Ver*. 384.

The slaves, with whom these are contrasted, were exposed to all the dangers of the streets of Rome, while *they* were safe under their master's roof, ministering to his wants and his pleasures. But what their services were, the reader, (if perchance he should not understand the original) will derive no information. All the particularity of Juvenal has fallen through the translator's sieve, and only the coarser and less valuable matter is left behind. That the slaves performed some tasks (not perhaps with *fruitless* haste) we are slightly informed; but nothing transpires relating to the nature of their services. We hear nothing of the *washing of dishes*, or, as Mr. Gifford is pleased to refine it, of the *scouring of plate*; nothing of their *culinary vigilance*, nor of their complicated preparations for the *luxury of the bath*.

It is a great excellence of a translation to give to the mere reader of his vernacular tongue, as much of the author's account of manners, and customs, and employments, &c., as the genius of the modern language will admit; and, if possible, to preserve even the allusions in some degree of purity. We often mark a great failure in this respect in the translation before us. Indeed the examples of this defect are so numerous, that to select them would extend our review much beyond the limits to which it is entitled. We shall therefore cite but one instance more.

Juvenal tells us, that justice was so much corrupted at Rome, that the first question, in establishing the credibility of a witness, concerned his wealth.

> ....*Quot pascit servos, quot possidit agri*
> *Jugera, quam multa magnaque paropside coenat.* Ver. 141.

> Say what his slaves, his equipage, his land? *Ver*. 201.

This timidity of our author, lest he should be too loquacious, is not natural to him. We do not relish this affectedly elliptical line; and *equipage*, the vague and feeble interpretation of the *quam multa magnaque paropside coenat* of Juvenal, is far from satisfactory.

We have spent the more time on this performance, because it holds the most conspicuous place in the book, and is a species of composition, in which our country has afforded but few adventurers. It is not probable, that the author will long be willing to risque his fame upon this "exercise in the art of versification." It contains no passage eminently vigorous, and seldom approaches the manner of Juvenal. It is but just to add, that there are few things in the work very censurable; and indeed how could there be, when the author wanted that poetick fire, which alone can infuse even into a translation of a Roman satire, the true spirit of that species of writing? We say, it contains little that is very censurable. There are some passages where we find words combined in a manner neither elegant nor correct; such as, "far more present," "chief (most) detest," "breathe a wretched vow" (for prayer.) The word *rhetor* is retained in the translation for rhetorician, which is also one word in a doggerel catalogue of professions, (lines 113-14) that will infallibly make the reader laugh. The examples of bad rhymes and false measure are very few; fewer than what may be found in the same satire in Mr. Gifford's translation.

While the author of London, an imitation of the third satire of Juvenal, was unknown to Pope, we are told, he exclaimed in the words of Terence, "*ubi, ubi est celari non potest;*" but we shall wave our curiosity to know the author of the translation, till in his own language,—waveringly prophetick indeed,

> "Perhaps, embolden'd by the voice of praise,"

he shall again appear before the publick, and, in a tone more commanding, claim admission *into the temple of fame.*

There are several smaller translations in this volume, from ancient and modern poets, in which there is little to censure or to praise. Two odes from *Anacreon*, a war song from *Tyrtæus*, an ode from the Spanish of *La Vega*, and portions from *Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered*, are among the number. Of the translations from Tasso, the author remarks, "if, upon comparison, they should be found to convey a juster representation of the original, than the corresponding passages of Mr. Hoole's version, the superiority must be ascribed to the peculiar fitness of blank verse, as the medium of translation, where the original is so remarkably distinguished by energy, majesty, and simplicity of style." We shall enter into no controversy with the writer on this subject. Hoole, in his Tasso, has always delighted us, and delighted the more for having, in imitation of his original, added to his correct versification the pleasing ornament of rhyme, which is *not* incompatible with true sublimity. We do not say that a translation of Tasso, as good as Mr. Hoole's, can never be produced; but we are confident, that our author has too much modesty to stand forth for the prize of *superiority*.

The most considerable in length of the poems in this volume, called *original*, is one entitled "*The Triumph of Woman.*" "There is," the author remarks, "a considerable hiatus in the manuscript of this poem; should the publick add *valde deflendus*, it may possibly be supplied." The *publick* has hardly sensibility enough to weep on such occasions. We perused it in the night, and, perchance, shed a tear. In some instances we have remarked, in the smaller poems, an affected use of obsolete terms. If our poets continue this practice, (for others are guilty of the same) we shall soon have to repair to *Ben Jonson*, or the *old ballad*, for a glossary to poems of the nineteenth century. Another species of affectation in this writer is the peculiar and repeated use of the infinitive, with the omission of its appropriate sign *to*,—as, *wont inspire, deign impart, chuse impart.*

Sonnets compose a considerable portion of the original poetry; but as our author cannot expect to build his fame on the airy fabrick of sonnets, we make him no apology for neglecting them. Altho' there are pieces in this collection, which we are not disposed to censure, we think the writer has still before him the arduous task of establishing his reputation as a poet. He certainly undervalues, or sadly neglects, the harmony of numbers; and, though he sometimes writes good sense, he fails in that *callida junctura*, or dextrous combination of words, which Horace, the great arbiter in matters of taste, tells us gives to an old thought the semblance of novelty.

There are a few small poems in this volume, communicated by the friend, who wrote the introductory letter. These are sometimes accompanied by a little marginal praise, which, as it is a mark of our author's *gratitude*, we highly approve. In the lines *addressed to a lady*, there are several verses which gave us pleasure; and, as we always wish our readers to participate with us the sweet as well as the *bitter*, we conclude with the two following verses :....

'The trickling tears which flow'd straight
Oft hast thou stay'd, till morning light
Dispell'd my little woes;
So fly before the sun-beam's power
The remnants of the evening shower,
Which wet the early rose.

As oft his anxious nurse has caught,
And sav'd his little hand, that sought
The bright but treach'rous blaze;
So may fair wisdom keep him sure
From glitt'ring vices, which allure
Through life's delusive maze.

ART. 61.

Memoirs of Richard Cumberland. Written by himself. Containing an account of his life and writings, interspersed with anecdotes and characters of several of the most distinguished persons of his time, with whom he has had intercourse and connexion. New-York, published by Brisban & Brannan. 8*vo. pp.* 356.

FROM the life of Cumberland we had expected much, and our expectations are not disappointed. Yet our gratification has not been uniform or uninterrupted. When the literary veteran speaks of his own services in the world of letters, he commonly fixes attention; when he talks of the wits, his contemporaries, he is always listened to with pleasure; but he wishes us besides to be acquainted with all the branches of his family, with his masters and his rivals at the university, whose names we have seldom heard before, and of whom we shall never inquire hereafter. Much of his book is also devoted to his political concerns, and this we could contentedly have spared.

The chief difficulty in reading this work arises from the want of dates. The events of one season after another, from youth to age, are related by the biographer without designating the years, in which they happened; and he talks of the next spring, or the next winter, when we can hardly determine them with more certainty, than the chronology of Priam.

Of those productions, to which the world has showed little kindness, the author gives us large extracts. In the decline of life the offspring of his youth seem dearer to him than those of his maturity, and he vainly wishes them to be received into the same company.

The tedious transcripts in pages 85, 188, 341, besides most of the ninety pages of his diplomatick transactions in Spain, increase the cost of his book, while they add little to its value. During the visit to the lakes of Cumberland, "the sun," says our author, "was never very gracious to our suit;" nor can this excite surprise, if his refulgence was only to be hoped from the languid invocation he has copied for us.

Of the style the general character is ease without grace, and it sometimes falls below the simplicity of conversation towards vulgarity. "I declare to truth" is is not the language of a gentleman. The thoughts are lively rather than instructive. There are few profound observations; but many animated similies, and many unexpected combinations.

The anecdotes of the well-known characters of Johnson, Goldsmith, Garrick, and Foote will be often perused with delight. Of Garrick, whose sphere was remote from his own, Cumberland speaks in the most generous and deserved commendation; but the domain of Goldsmith borders on the province of the biographer; and, in his notes of praise, we distinguish the tone of a rival.

From the account of those persons, whose virtues are less known than their names, we extract for general information the character of Lord North. "When in process of time I saw and knew Lord North in his retirement from all publick affairs, patient, collected, resigned to an afflicting visitation of the severest sort, when all, but his illuminated mind, was dark around him, I contemplated an affecting and an edifying object, that claimed my admiration and esteem; a man, who, when divested of that incidental greatness, which high office for a time can give, self-dignified and independent, rose to real greatness of his own creating, which no time can take away; whose genius gave a grace to every thing he said, and whose benignity shed a lustre upon every thing he did; so richly was his memory stored, and so lively was his imagination in applying what he remembered, that, after the great source of information was shut against himself, he still possessed a boundless fund of information for the instruction and delight of others."

The last words of Viscount Sackville, more known in our country, as Lord George Germaine, do honour to the memory of a man of talents. "You see me now in those moments, when no disguise will serve, and when the spirit of a man must be proved. I have a mind perfectly resigned, and at peace within itself. I have done with this world, and what I have done in it, I have done for the best; I hope and trust I am prepared for the next. Tell not me of all, that passes in health and pride of heart; these are the moments, in which a man must be searched, and remember, that I die, as you see me, with a tranquil conscience and content."

The heart of the author, as evidently appears from many places in his narration, is of the most amiable disposition, deeply imbued with

.................."all the charities
Of father, son, and brother."

Though his family misfortunes allow us not to exclaim, happy old man! with more fervency than Horace we shall pray, serus in cœlum redeas.

ART. 62.

The Philadelphia Medical Museum. By John Redman Coxe, M. D. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. Philadelphia, Archibald Bartram, for Thomas Dobson.

PERIODICAL publications may be considered one effect of the new direction, which the genius of Bacon gave to the powers of the mind. Before that era of true philosophy the medical art was obscured by hypothetical reasonings, founded on fancied properties of matter, or on the combination of certain elements, which existed only in the writings of the philosophers. From absurd theories resulted curious and unfortunate modes of treatment; and the evident incongruity, arising from the application of preconceived hypotheses to the cure of diseases, drew from a celebrated ancient physician the observation, that medicine was merely a "conjectural art." The revolution, however, which the method of reasoning by induction produced on most of the physical sciences, was gradually extended to that of medicine. Theories were deserted for facts, and speculative opinions for the knowledge of the operations of nature. The science of medicine acquired new principles, and assumed a new character. Hence resulted the anxiety of philosophers to collect facts, and, from the same principle, proceeded the extensive epistolary correspondence, which, for a long period, was attached to eminence in the medical profession. Physicians were eager to obtain some portion of that practical knowledge, which the patriarchs of medicine were able and willing to impart. But this mode of communication was laborious in execution, and limited in effect. The calls of duty, and the fatigues of practice, allowed but little time to be devoted to the arranging of those ideas, and description of those cases, which an acute and habitual observation had gradually collected. The inconvenience, resulting from this mode of publication, added to the conviction, that many useful observations and important discoveries were lost, merely through want of a proper vehicle to convey them to the publick mind, first suggested the idea of periodical works. The advantages of these were soon obvious. So soon as it was known, that detached portions of practical knowledge might be published, unconnected with systems, and unsupported by theories, every one was willing to contribute his share of experience to the publick good. Works of this nature multiplied, and were soon disseminated thro' almost every nation in Europe.—Periodical publications, in fact, may be considered the indices, which mark the progress of the sciences. They are the depositaries of those researches and discoveries, which acute and sagacious minds have collected on those branches of general science, to which each of these works is respectively appropriated.

In our own country the progress of this great improvement was extremely slow. For a long period we were contented to reason on the facts, and practise on the principles of European systems. Societies for the advancement of medicine have successively pledged themselves to favour the publick with their transactions, but that responsibility, which is efficient in an individual, becomes weakened by extension. The ardor scientiæ, which glows in the bosoms of a few, is often extinguished by diffusion. This impediment is to be discovered in moral causes. Our country is certainly capable of affording rich and abundant materials for works of this nature. The territory of the United States is of immense extent, and comprehends within its boundaries, every variety of soil, and almost every modification of climate. Our fields are still unexplored by the botanist, and our mountains by the mineralogist. New diseases have arisen, whose origin and nature are still the subjects of controversy among our physicians; while the diseases of Europe, modified by our climates and modes of living, require new applications and different modes of treatment. Knowing, therefore, that we possess inexhaustible stores of new matter, it was with much pleasure we opened the work before us, the third of the kind devoted to medical pursuits, published in this country. In the formation of a work like this, the first object of attention, undoubtedly, for its importance, is a collection of facts on our diseases, particularly our autumnal epidemicks. It is well known, that the most respectable physicians of the southern and middle states have been and still are engaged in a controversy, respecting the origin, the nature, and the modes of treatment of the bilious remitting fever. A collection, therefore, of authentick documents, relative to this disease, so as to form a regular chronological account, may tend to elucidate these disputed points, and consequently to mitigate that rancour, with which this contest of opinion has been conducted, and which has thrown no small degree of odium on the medical profession, Next to these we class accounts of the vegetable and mineral productions of our own country. Here we find open to our view a rich field of inquiry. This branch of knowledge has been too much neglected. Physicians of the interiour have, from necessity, acquired a kind of empyrical knowledge of our indigenous plants. This, however, has been in general confined within their own sphere of practice. Yet medicines, for which the physician of the city is indebted to his retort and crucible, are often found by the "culler of simples," ready prepared in the great laboratory of nature. To these should be added accounts of the variations of the weather, and of diseases connected with these states.

The Medical Musuem, each number of which appears every four months, is divided into three heads. The first is devoted to original communications; the second, denominated the Philosophical and Medical Register, contains extracts from European journals, and gives accounts of those discoveries, which tend to the advancement of medicine and of the sciences, with which it is connected; the third division is simply an enumeration of new publications. The limits of a review will not permit us to examine in detail the multifarious productions, by which works like these are necessarily constituted. We shall only briefly notice those papers, which appear valuable to us for practical observations, or for the successful exhibition of new remedies in the cure of diseases. On the yellow fever we find several communications. The first volume commences with the account of Dr. Mitchell, of the fever in Virginia, in 1741-2. This is communicated by Dr. Rush, and is the same, if we mistake not, to which he refers in his own work on that subject; and which gave him the hint, that first led to the adoption of his new mode of treating that disease. This paper is followed by some observations found in the note book of Dr. Kearsley, sen., on the difference between the disease described by Dr. Mitchell, and that which appeared in Philadelphia about the same period. At page 22 commences a series of letters from Dr. Drysdale to Dr. Rush, on the yellow fever of Baltimore in 1794. We have neither time nor inclination to enter on the discussion of the merits of the theories, advanced by the professor of medicine at the school of Philadelphia, and published in the last edition of his works. We shall only observe, that the elaborate work of Dr. Drysdale is evidently a very close imitation of the style and peculiar arrangement of his celebrated medical prototype. They are, however, written with ability, and, we presume, with truth; and we consider them as valuable additions to the mass of facts, already collected on this formidable disease. At page 60 we have some cases from Dr. Rush on the efficacy of the acetite of lead in the cure of epilepsy. From his observations it appears, that in three cases, in which the exhibition of this medicine produced a radical cure, the subjects were under the age of puberty. On adults, however, he thinks its salutary action merely temporary. It was with much pleasure therefore, that we perused the account of Dr. Spence, (vol. II. p. 150) who believes himself cured of this formidable disease by the use of this medicine. It is worthy of observation, that during the progress of cure, the system discovered many of those effects, which seem to be excited only by the exhibition of mercury, particularly those local symptoms, by which the action of the latter is characterised. Its effects also on the alimentary canal very nearly resembled the symptoms of the colica pictonum. It may be questioned, whether the salutary operation of the sugar of lead might not be produced by a more gradual exhibition, by which those unpleasant consequences produced in Dr. Spence might be avoided. At any rate, this paper deserves consideration for its practical importance, though we are by no means disposed, with the Doctor, to ascribe its beneficial effects to the co-operation of lunar influence.

In the first volume, p. 189, we find an important paper, by Dr. Physick, of Philadelphia, on the use of blisters in checking the progress of mortification. It is unnecessary however to notice every individual paper. It is sufficient, we think, to mention the very respectable names of Rush, Physick, Dewees, Woodhouse, and of Coxe the editor, as authors of a great proportion of these communications, to insure a favourable reception of the Museum. On the subject of our indigenous medicinal plants, the inquiries of Dr. Coxe are, in some degree, superseded by the labours of Professor Barton, the editor of a periodical work, a considerable portion of which is exclusively devoted to this important branch of medicine. The communications, however, of Dr. Mease and of Dr. Watkins, published in the Museum, must be considered valuable additions to our domestick materia medica.

The second division of the Medical Museum is made up of extracts from European publications on discoveries or improvements in chemistry, or the arts; of medical news and of domestick journals of the weather, of diseases, &c. We notice with much pleasure a considerable portion of it devoted to subjects connected with the cow-pock. On this interesting disease the editor has not only made copious extracts of new and important facts, published in European journals, but added all the the remarks and useful information he has gradually collected relative to vaccination in our own country. In volume 2d, p. 200, he has presented us with the very interesting examination of Mr. Goldson's second pamphlet, by Dr. Pearson of London, read before the Vaccine Institution, Golden-square. We recommend this paper to the perusal of those whose minds may have been thrown into a state of oscillation, by an acquaintance with that publication. We cannot refrain from mentioning in this place an extract from a letter from London, p. 93, volume 2, in which the writer laments the fatal effects resulting from the exhibition of quack medicines. Mr. Clayton of Yorkshire has cautioned the publick against the use of "Ching's worm lozenges." We shall extract his short account. "He stated that he had two children to whom he administered this medicine. One of them died shortly after, but his disease was attributed to worms, with which he had long been afflicted. Within a very short period the elder survivor became dangerously ill, *a complete salivation ensued;* medical aid was now procured, but too late to relieve the child, who died in great agony within a few hours. On dissection, a large portion of mercury was found in the intestines. A coroner's jury was assembled, who, together with the surgeon, gave this verdict, 'Died by mercurial poison, administered in the form of Ching's Lozenges.'" We hear with much satisfaction, that the Medical Society of London is taking effectual measures to discover these evil spirits of quackery, with an intention of banishing them from society, and holding them up as proper objects for the contempt and detestation of the world.

In the Register we find some valuable abstracts of meteorological observations made at Philadelphia. These would have been rendered more useful by the addition of an account of diseases, connected with different states of the weather, though the necessity of this is in some degree obviated by journals of the diseases at the Philadelphia Dispensary.

The third division of the Museum is simply an enumeration of new medical publications. We cannot help regretting, that the register was not, in some degree, curtailed, or the limits of the work extended to make room for reviews of new domestick or of republished European works, on subjects connected with the science of medicine. This would be interesting to all, but particularly to physicians, who, residing at a distance from our capital cities, have no opportunity of ascertaining the value of a work, before they have risked a purchase. By judicious observations on new publications, they will be enabled at once to perceive those, which are calculated to aid them in their practice, rather than merely to ornament the shelves of their libraries. We hope the able editor of the Museum will give the characters of the works, which he may enumerate in his subsequent numbers. Upon the whole, we consider the Philadelphia Medical Museum as a very respectable publication. We have perused the multifarious productions in these two volumes with much satisfaction, and not without improvement. We have compared it with several European publications of the same kind, and find it inferiour to none in execution. It is remarkably free from typographical errours. The engravings, since added by the editor, though not promised in the prospectus, add much to the value of the work, and are favourable specimens of the engraphick powers of Lawson. We sincerely hope, that Dr. Coxe will meet with that encouragement from the publick, which his attention and abilities as an editor and the respectable character of his work have led him to expect.

ART 63.

Foscari, or the Venetian Exile; a Tragedy in five acts, as performed at the Charleston Theatre. By John B. White. Charleston, printed for the author by J. Hoff, No. 6, Broad-street. 1806.

TRAGEDY, according to Aristotle, *is an imitation, in ornamental language, of an action important and complete, and possessing a certain degree of magnitude, having its forms distinct in their respective parts, and by the representation of persons acting, and not by narration affecting, through the mean of pity and terrour, the purgation of such passions.*

This *propositum* of the great Stagirite partakes as much of the nature of a definition, as of a rule; for that, which was once necessary, continues indispensable, and the original intent of tragedy has now the permanency of usage, and the security of prescription. It is, however, much to be lamented, that the part of the poetic, which treats of tragedy, is only abstract and elementary, and that the mind has not the satisfaction of its history from so authoritative a source. Its origin is only to be traced in the obscurity of mythology through the confusion of vague theorists and countless commentators. That tragedy, however, originated in ancient divine worship is very plain. Its first appearance is evidently in the hymns, which were sung in honour of Bacchus, at the sacrifices of the goat,* its bite being particularly destructive of the vine. This sacrifice grew into an annual festival. The hymns and songs were increased, and dancing was added to the musick of the chorus.

The first state of every human invention is imperfect. As it is a principle in the physical world, that all things, at their production, are subject to increase and maturity, so is it an ordinance in intellectual creation, that every thing, invented by human intelligence, is capable of improvement; and therefore every great system, at its origin, is no more than the inception of perfection, or the first act of successive improvement. This truth is more familiarly proved by observing and tracing the effects, on men generally, of those institutions which were made for their amusement. At first, there is a very powerful charm, arising from the invention; but as soon as the novelty subsides, they eagerly look for something more to supply its place. Such is the uneasiness of delight with a populace, that they cannot be long gratified, unless the additions of pleasure be made commensurate with the extent of their power of being pleased. This was what gradually improved and perfected tragedy. The sameness of the hymns of the chorus fatigued, and, in order to relieve the audience, Thespis invented, and rehearsed in character, some tale in the intervals of the chorus. Still satiety and repletion were wearisome, and it was left for Æschylus to perform so much by improvement, that he is justly denominated the father of tragedy. The single personage, which Thespis introduced in the intervals of the chorus, wanted interest; Æschylus therefore introduced a second, and thus formed dialogue and episode. These raised action and interest, and a continuity of events followed, which awakened, and closely possessed the attention of the audience, till the chorus was almost forgotten, or, at most, retained only as an auxiliary in the drama.

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* Hence the word *Tragedy*, from Τραγος and ωδη. The commentators, not content with this most natural and obvious interpretation, have given us several. Some of them turn Τραγωδια into Τραγυδια, and so derive it from Τρυξ, the lees of wine, with which the old actors besmeared their faces. Others inform us that τρυξ signifies new wine, a skin of which was usually given to the poet, like the butt of sack to our laureat. —Francklin's Disserta. on ancient Tragedy.

The constituent parts of ancient tragedy were, the prologue, the episode, the exode, and the chorus.

The prologue answered to the exordium in oratory, giving an idea, in some measure, of the whole. It afforded sufficient insight into the construction of the drama, so as to excite interest in the audience, without admitting it so far, as to take away the effect of what was to succeed, and operate as surprise. This answers to the first act of modern tragedy.

The episode is all that part of the tragedy, which was between the hymns of the chorus, and contained the whole of the plot. This answers to our second, third, and fourth acts, containing all the important parts of the fable. The Stagirite is so strict and rigid in his rules of episode, that he forbids the introduction of any matter, to make a part of it, which could possibly be taken away, without being missed. Much therefore depends on the episode, so that the plot be conducted to produce the most unexpected peripeteia, and the most sensible pathos.* This division determines the character of the dramatick poet.

The exode was that part which was recited, after the chorus ceased singing, and is our fifth act, containing the catastrophe and disentangling of the plot.

It has been a question in dramatick criticism, whether modern tragedy has been injured, or improved, by the omission of the chorus. Whether a set of constant spectators to the general action, and sometimes coadjutors in it, and always attendants on the high characters, would not give and receive more interest in what was delivered and passed before them, than can be effected by modern arrangement. The heroes of latter tragedy have to communicate their schemes, secrecies, and sufferings to the audience through an insipid confident or a trusty servant, or the strong convulsions of passion subside in the tedium of a long soliloquy. What can be more absurd, than a high-wrought female character communing with a drab, and deli-

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* Περιπετεια is an unexpected reverse of fortune in the persons acting, necessarily or probably arising from the incidents; ϖαθος is that part of the action which is either fatal or painful.—Arist. Poet. Ch. XII.

cate misery seeking sympathy from a chambermaid, made up of all the tarnished gewgaws of the wardrobe. There is something also most repugnant to common sense and experience in the doctrine of monologue or soliloquy. In hearing soliloquy, the audience must suppose one of two things, viz. the actor talking to himself, or thinking aloud. In real life, a man, who is in the habit of the former, is invariably the subject of laughter and ridicule ; thinking aloud is mere metaphor. But in the presence of the chorus, the hero was amongst his own friends, and, of course, had a plain dramatick right of addressing them, and communicating to them his purposes and feelings, which reached the ear of the audience, without absurdity or disgust.

Another defect of modern tragedy is in general action and display. The ancients, though they had no variety of local scene, had a magnificence in the drama, which is almost altogether wanting in our own. The *cothurnus* is now reduced to the common shoe. So little attention was once paid to the splendour, and even propriety of costume, that such a character as Cato was flourishing and flouncing on the Drury-Lane stage in a big sleeve coat and full bottomed periwig, and thus were metamorphosed the heroes of ancient times,

> " A motley mixture ! in long wigs, in bags,
> In silks, in crapes, in garters, and in rags."

Shakespeare, who needed, less than any writer, splendour and display of action, has more than any of the modern school. Tragedy, from solemnity of sentiment and pomp of language, requires representation, filled with magnificence and grandeur. Every tone is solemn, so ought to be every step, and the cause and effect of sentiment and action to be correspondent and proportionate.

Aristotle lays down *effect* as the true test and proof of excellence in drama. This canon of antiquity is altogether favourable to the pretensions of modern tragedy. If Melpomeme could sit in judgment on her Æschylus and Shakespeare, her Sophocles and Otway, and her Euripides and Rowe, would not the spirits of her younger offspring receive the lustre of her smile ? But, however high and bright these names may stand, together with the convention of Congreve, Southern,and Young, for the latter times of tragedy we must hide our faces. Holme and Douglas, and the Carmelite and Cumberland, live long in their dotage, and we think it not rashness to predict, that their tragedies will be, by and by, amongst the rubbish before the flood ; and if Cumberland be not remembered by his Carmelite, Gustavus and Brooks, and the Grecian Daughter and Murphy, must be also forgotten.

We have been tracing the sober steps of the Muse through the dusky paths of antiquity, and been charmed with her demure and plaintive mein, as she stalked with slow and solemn pace through more modern times. Her air was then mighty and majestick, her tones thrilling, and her utterance deep, her visage contemplative and sorrowful, her eyes full, and dim with grief, and as they were lifted upwards, their lashes hanging with tear drops. But,in our own country, how is she her own caricature ! Her change, with us, is like that of the actress, who, a few moments past, was holding our senses and passions in chains, in the character of lady Macbeth, now scolding in Nell; or the weeping Belvidera holding forth in the vulgarity of Betty Blackberry. The Hibernian Burke has entertained us with the *bullbaiting* of "Bunker Hill;" and we forget the name of the youth, who played such Tom-Thumb-tragedy with the woes of "Edwy and Elgiva." He, whose eyes have been parched with the dry lines of the "Persian Patriot,"* will remember them only from annoyance, and its dry author—as

> "A meagre muse-rid mope, adust and thin,
> In a dun night-gown of his own loose skin,
> He grins, and looks broad nonsense with a stare!"

But enough of these "thin third-night" authors.

For so much preliminary matter we have to offer, in apology, the barbarism and ignorance, under which tragedy labours, on this side the water.

Foscari is fit for criticism, and therefore holds the first rank in American drama. Indeed, this is something with a beginning, a middle, and an end, containing a certain share of dramatick action, sentiment, and ornament of language.

The fable runs thus:...Foscari, son of the Doge of Venice, was banished to the island of Candia, having been charged with the murder of Count Donato, one of the council, and father of Almeria, to whom Foscari was betrothed. The play opens with Foscari's return from a five year's exile, being remanded to Venice, on account of his soliciting relief from the Duke of Milan. This being a high offence against the state, he is again arraigned before the council, and banishment for life is decreed against him. Count Erizzo, the enemy of the family of Foscari, in love with Almeria, persecutes him with deadly enmity. Before Foscari departs, he obtains an interview with Almeria, when Erizzo and his accomplice, Policarpo, rush on Almeria; Foscari fights them in her defence, and in the struggle Policarpo, through mistake, stabs Erizzo. Erizzo, in his last agonies, sends for the Doge, confesses his guilt, and avows the innocence of his son, and himself the murderer of Count Donato. Trouble turns Almeria mad; and as soon as the Doge informs his wife Valeria of the innocence of their son, they receive intelligence of the death of Foscari, who dies on his way to the ship, in which he was to embark for Candia.

If the rule of tragedy be true, and it comes from too high authority to be doubted, that the character of the poet is rather derived from the composition of the fable, than the verse; because imitation constitutes the poet, and the fable is the imitation of an action, Mr. White cannot hold the highest elevation. His fable and his plot have no novelty, and not much interest. As a tragedy, we hardly know where to look for its peripetia, and where to feel for its pathos. Foscari has evidently no change of fortune whatever, for he is just as miserable at his first appearance, as at his last; he enters in his return from exile with a new political crime, and all his additional misery is the extension of his banishment, which was the necessary consequence. The pathos is scarcely perceptible in his hero; Foscari suffers not enough, and his dying off the stage with only a very short, and rather a ridiculous, narration of his death, gives the audience not even a chance for grief or surprise. The poet has not altogether forgotten to excite pity, though he has neglected terrour; what is wanting in the latter, is amply made up in the former. The character of Almeria is tender and affecting. Her frensy scene, though long, is no where disgusting; and if that high-wrought action, which ends in madness, be not absolutely disgusting, it must produce very powerful sympathy. Erizzo is an old-fashioned rascal, and Policarpo a worn-out assassin. The character of the Doge is manly and dignified, and through the whole is very plainly and thoroughly delineated. Some of the scenes between him and Foscari are happy and affecting, and display the truth of paternal and filial affection.

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* There is another tragedy, produced by a *Rhode-Island Poet*; we forget its name, as well as that of the sublime author. Amongst its bright touches, are these lines:

> "*One hundred pounds, in* CONTINENTAL MONEY,
> *To the man, who first shall scale yon high walls!*!"

Enter Doge, (to Foscari.)
Do I behold my long lost son again?
The only prop of my declining age!
Fos. O, let me cling about thee!... Let me kiss
Those aged feet that bear thee to thy son.
(Embracing his father.)
Doge. This is too much for nature to support!
Thou hast unman'd me!...
Fos. My dearest father,
Do I then hold thee in these arms once more?
Do my lips press again thy aged cheek?
Do I hear again that dear, that tender voice?
O! speak, my Father,...Speak to me!
Doge. My son,
My soul is faint and overcome with grief;...
What can I say of comfort to my child?
Fos. Do I behold those eyes o'erflow with tears,
And find, unmov'd, no moisture from my own?
Alas! the tears that once could overflow,
And gush like fountains from these eyes, are now
Grown dry, and cease to spring at sorrow's call.
Doge. Thou wilt have greater need, my son, for tears,
When thy fond mother's arms are open wide
To clasp thee to her bosom: For trust me,
She looks with tenfold greater anxiousness
Tow'rds the approach of that blest moment,
Than e'er she did towards thy natal day.
Fos. Then bear me to her on the wings of speed,
Let my light steps not touch the earth
Until I throw me at my parent's feet!
Act III. p. 25.

The verse of Mr. White is generally harmonious, though not sufficiently lofty and majestick for tragedy. Some of his lines have, however, much firmness.

..........See where the ruffian stalks along,
And mark how eagerly he pants for blood!
I've listened oftimes to the hungry wolf,
When neighbouring caves have answered to her cries,
And echoing woods returned the lengthened yell;
Still her sad howl ne'er seemed so terrible,
As the detested voice of that fell villain.

The continuity of the dialogue is one of the excellencies of the tragedy before us; there are no breaks and pauses of sense in its parts, and no irregularity of the transition of sentiment in the characters, though the rule of Aristotle is not altogether followed, as regards the entireness of the episode, for many scenes might be taken out, without being missed.

The poet would have made his verse more various, if his lines had been more frequently irregular. The introduction of a redundant half-foot, or the eleventh syllable, is often used by the best writers. Rowe, whose language is the most perfect model of tragick verse, seems particularly fond of it.

"Let this auspicious day be ever sacred,
No mourning, no misfortunes happen on it ;
Let it be marked for triumphs and rejoicings,
Let happy lovers ever make it holy,
Choose it to bless their hopes, and crown their wishes,
This happy day, that gives me my Calista." *Fair Penitent.*

And this writer, in some instances, departs from pentameter directly into hexameter.

"In watchful councils and in winter camps,
Had cast off his white age to want and wretchedness."

Foscari has some detached passages, which show delicacy and considerable powers of description in the author. We regret, that we are obliged to make an offset to them. How does the meagre and beggarly Muse limp through these barren passages.

Eriz. Truly my lord,
The unparallel'd misfortunes of thy son,
The fall'n honour of thy house, the stain that—
Doge. Say not the fallen honour of my house,
For still I trust, unsullied stands my name :
The misfortunes of my son, my noble Lord,
Will ne'er be made to stigmatize my house,
And tho' his honour may at present be
Obscur'd by passing clouds of envy, yet
Will his innocence, I trust, disperse them,
And leave his name untained by reproach.
Eriz. To pass five years in exile, and under
Imputation, foul as that of murder,
Is a reproach not wip'd away with ease.
Doge. Truly, my lord, I ne'er should seek thy aid
To vindicate my name, tho' blacker than thine own.
Eriz. So then, my lord, I've rous'd thy indignation ;
By hell, I'm glad to know thou hast some temper...
I've touch'd thee in a tender point, I find—
Doge. Hold, hold...thy pride becomes offensive,...Count,
Thou dost forget thyself.
Eriz. Most bravely said...
Perhaps Erizzo may still more offend
When he demands to be inform'd the fate
Of lady Almeria.
Doge. Yes, signor...yes...
Thou shalt hear it,...to thy shame shalt hear it...
'Twas no other than thyself who drove her
From the world....She hopes by close retirement
To avoid thy gross solicitations.
Act I. p. 11.

The madness of Almeria, as was observed before, produces very forcible sympathy. Her frensy, like Ophelia's, has something in it, which bewitches the fancy, and so touches the heart, that he, who has not felt his dry balls of sight moistened for years, must "shake the holy waters from his eyes" in the scene between lady Valeria and Almeria. We transcribe it, as the warmest expression of praise for the poet's powers in tender and exquisite misery.

Enter Almeria, drest fantastically, her hair flowing in wild disorder.
Val. My sweet Almeria, how fares it with thee ?
Alm. Good, my lady, this is a day of mirth,
Of great rejoicing, throughout all Venice :
I am glad to day, my heart has holidays.

O, I could dance for joy !...But do you know
The cause of all this mirth ? Young Foscari,
They say is to be married....O, no ! he's dead !—
Dead ? 'tis impossible !...No, no,...not dead,
'Tis only five years since I saw him last,
So 'tis impossible he can be dead !
Val. Sweet Almeria, tell me the cause of this ?
Alm. Ha !...I see you're making preparations
For the wedding ; look...I've adorn'd myself,
Altho' some told me 'twas a funeral.—
Val. Lovely Almeria ! thou wilt distract me !
Alm. Now, pray tell me, how do you like this hood ?
Say,...doth it well become a youthful bride ?
How gay you all appear !...They told me this,
To laugh at me !...Ah !. poor, poor, Almeria !
She has no one now to love her !...No ! No !—
But no matter....I will dance and be happy—
Shall I dance for you, lady ?...Nay, don't frown !
No...I'll sing a funeral dirge...because
Foscari is dead ! No one loves me now !
Val. I love thee, sweet maid,...most dearly love thee :
Come, O, come my beloved to my arms !
Alm. Throw away that corpse, then I will come to thee :
How can you hug that lifeless body so ?
See ! it is putrid ! but it is Foscari's,
So I too, will clasp it to my bosom.

(She rushes into Valeria's arms, then suddenly bursts into a convulsive fit of laughter.)

But I have no cause to laugh...he's dead !
I have cause to weep, for when he implor'd me
On his knees to hear him, why I did laugh.—
How merry you all appear, while I am sad !—
Rejoice with me, lady....I am going to marry.
I have n't seen my intended husband yet,
Tho' I shall not take a grim lord to my arms.
—I shudder at the thought...for his touch, they say,
Is very cold,....'twill chill my blood with horrour !
But see...even the Doge himself is merry,
Merry, because his son's about to wed,
So I'll go deck his nuptial bed with flowers. [*Exit.*

Act V. pp. 45—46.

It is needless to say, after so many favourable specimens, what Mr. White is capable of performing in tragedy, with a little correction. He, who has done so much well, will probably do more better. So favourable a beginning promises a very successful end ; and, by long and silent communion and meditation with the Muses, our poet may, hereafter, catch a smile and a beck from Melpomene to a seat in their temple.

ART. 64.

The Trial of the Journeymen Boot and Shoemakers of Philadelphia, on an indictment for a combination and conspiracy to raise their wages. Taken in short hand, by Thomas Lloyd. Philadelphia, B. Graves. 1806. *pp.* 159.

The cities of the United States flourish and rapidly increase in population, wealth, arts, and commerce. With these it is reasonable to expect an influx of their concomitant vices and inconveniences. Regular government and strict internal police are necessary to preserve order and administer justice, where the business and concerns of man are so multiplied and complicated. Gain is the occupation of all ; and the powerful love of lucre, like the principle of gravitation, impels to action even stocks and stones. Co-operation and concert are so useful to a multitude, pursuing a common end, that wefrequently find brethren of the same craft constituting communities, enacting by-laws, and sanctioning them by the severe penalties of ignominy and ruin to the disobedient. These associations frequently contravene the rights and are very vexatious to other classes of citizens. *Rushworth*, in Hist. Coll. records the speech of a member of parliament on this subject. "It is a nest of wasps, or swarm of vermin, that have overcrept the land. These, like the frogs of Egypt, have gotten possession of our dwellings, and we have scarce a room free from them. They sup in our cup. They dip in our dish. They sit by our fire. We find them in the dye-fat, wash-bowl, and powdering-tub. They have marked, and scaled us from head to foot. We may not buy our own cloathes, without their brokage. These are the suckers, that have suckt the commonwealth so hard, that it is almost become hectical. They have a vizard to hide the brand; they make by-laws, which serve their turn to squeeze us and fill their purses."

These combinations are certainly injurious, and wise policy dictates that they should be repressed. By them all the members are placed on equality, and consequently ingenuity, skill, and diligence are deprived of their reward. The ignorant and indolent, who compose the majority of every class, naturally advocate measures, which elevate them, and depress their superiours. Unfortunately our legislature has not looked with an indulgent eye on all applications for incorporations, and has strengthened bonds, naturally too strong to be severed by the sword of justice.

This pamphlet contains the report of the trial of journeymen boot and shoe-makers for a combination against their masters. The indictment against them contains two counts—1st, for contriving and intending, unjustly, and oppressively, to increase and augment the wages usually allowed them. The other for endeavouring to prevent, by threats, menaces, and other unlawful means, other journeymen from working at the usual prices, and that they compelled others to join them. This cause, it appears, considerably agitated the body of tradesmen in the city. There were retained in the prosecution and defence of the action some of the most able and eminent counsellors of that city, whose forum is thronged by honourable, eloquent, and learned lawyers. After a solemn discussion of the question the Defendants were convicted and punished.

In the correctness of the decision all sound lawyers, and all who wish for internal peace and industry, will acquiesce.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR NOVEMBER.

Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

....

A new, plain, and systematick compendium of practical Arithmetick, adapted to the commerce of the United States;—with a Key, constructed as Telfair's Key to Gough's Arithmetick. By Alexander Watt. Philadelphia, for the author.

The Complete Justice of the Peace, containing extracts from Burn's Justice, and other judiciary productions. The whole altered and made conformable to the laws and manners of administering

Justice, particularly in the State of New-Hampshire, and generally in the other United States—Comprising the practice, authority, and duty of justices of the peace, with forms and precedents relating thereto. By a Gentleman of the Profession. Large 8vo. pp. 431. $2,50. C. Peirce, Portsmouth, and S. Bragg, jun. Dover.

The American Builder's Companion, or a new system of Architecture; particularly adapted to the present style of building in the United States—Containing forty-four engravings, representing, geometrical lines; twenty different designs for mouldings; the five orders of architecture, with great alterations, both in size and expense; glueing up and diminishing of columns; how to find the different brackets of a ground ceiling; base and surbase mouldings, architraves, &c.; twenty-four different designs for cornices, both for external and internal finishing; stone window caps and sills, showing the manner of setting them in a brick wall; sash frames, sashes, and shutters; straight and circular stairs; roofs, and finding the length and backing of hips, either square or bevel; ornamental capitals, mouldings, friezes, leaves, and ceilings; chimney pieces; frontispieces; urns, banisters, key stones, &c.; plans and elevations of three houses for town, and two for country; plans and elevations for two meeting-houses; plan and elevation for a summer-house; plan and elevation for a court-house; plan, elevation, and section of the Branch bank of Boston—with particular directions for executing all the above designs. By Asher Benjamin, architect and carpenter, and Daniel Raynerd, architect and stucco worker. 4to. pp. 70. letter press. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

Christianity Displayed, or a rational view of the great scripture doctrine of Redemption and Salvation, through Jesus Christ—together with some practical observations. By a Citizen of Baltimore. 8vo. 25 cents.

An Inquiry into the present state of the foreign relations of the Union, as affected by the late measures of the Administration. Price 87½ cents. New-York, Brisban & Brannan.

A Medical Discourse, on several Narcotic Vegetable Substances, read before the Massachusetts Medical Society, at their annual meeting, June 4th, 1806. By Joshua Fisher, M. D. Salem, Joshua Cushing.

A Vindication of the doctrine advocated by John Randolph, Esq. member of the House of Representatives of the United States. By Epaminondas. Price 37½ cents. N. York, Brisban & Brannan.

The Acts of Incorporation, together with the Bye Laws and orders of the Massachusetts Medical Society. Salem, Joshua Cushing.

On the Advantages of Publick Worship, a sermon. By William Hollingshead, D. D. one of the Ministers of the Independent or Congregational Church, in Charleston, S. Carolina. Preached June, 3, 1794, at the opening of the newly rebuilt house of worship of the Independent or Congregational Church, at Dorchester. Charleston, Markland, M'Iyer, & Co.

Two Discourses, delivered in the North Meeting-house in Portsmouth, 16th June, 1805, it being the Sabbath succeeding the interment of Mrs. Mary Buckminster, consort of the Rev. Joseph Buckminster, D. D. By Jesse Appleton, Congregational Minister in Hampton. W. & D. Treadwell. Portsmouth.

Charity recommended from the Social State of Man. A discourse, delivered before the Salem Female Charitable Society, September 17, 1806. By Rev. John Prince, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 39. Salem, Joshua Cushing.

A Sermon, delivered before the Hampshire Missionary Society, at their annual meeting at Northampton, August 28, 1806. By Jonathan L. Pomeroy, of Worthington. Northampton, William Butler.

A Discourse, delivered at Stillwater, before the members of Montgomery Lodge, August 12, 1806. By David Butler, Rector of St. Paul's Church, Troy, and of Trinity Church, Lansingburgh. 8vo. pp. 24. Troy, N.Y. Wright, Goodenow, & Stockwell.

A Sermon, delivered at Hartford, at the funeral of John M'Curdy Strong, son of the Rev. Nathan Strong, D. D. who was drowned in Connecticut river, on the evening of Sept. 16. By Abel Flint. Hartford, Lincoln & Gleason.

A Sermon, preached to the United Independent or Congregational Church of Dorchester and Beach-Hill, (S. C.) at the ordination of the Rev. James Adams, to the pastoral charge of said church. By the Rev. Daniel M'Calla, A. M. Charleston, W. P. Harrison.

The Piscataqua Evangelical Magazine, Vol. II. No. V, for September and October, 1806. 8vo. Amherst, Joseph Cushing.

NEW EDITIONS.

The Stranger in Ireland: or, a tour in the southern and western parts of that country, in the year of 1805. By John Carr, author of "a Northern Summer," "the Stranger in France," &c. 8vo. pp.339. Philadelphia, T. & G. Palmer for S. F. Bradford, &c.

Vol. II. Part II. of The New Cyclopædia, or Dictionary of Arts and Sciences. By Abraham Rees, D.D., F.R.S., 4to. Price to new subscribers, $3,50. Philadelphia, S. F. Bradford. Lemuel Blake, No. 1, Cornhill, agent in Boston.

The 2d volume of Original Anecdotes of Frederick the Great, king of Prussia. 8vo. 2 vols. $4 boards. Philadelphia, E. Bronson.

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The fifth edition of The American Coast Pilot, in which large improvements are made. 8vo. Newburyport, Edmund M. Blunt.

The Death of Legal Hope, and the Life of Evangelical Obedience. An essay on Gal. ii. 19. Shewing that while a sinner is in the law, as a covenant, he cannot live to God in the performance of duty: and that the moral law is immutable in its nature, and of perpetual use, as the rule of a believer's conduct. By Abraham Booth. 12mo. pp. 84. Boston, Manning & Loring.

Scott's Family Bible, vols. I, II, and III. Price to subscribers $6 per vol. Philadelphia, W. W. Woodward. These vols. complete the Old Testament. The fourth and last, which contains the New Testament, will be finished in the spring.

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IN THE PRESS.

Cooke's Elements of Dramatick Criticism, and instructions for succeeding in the art of acting; with anecdotes of eminent performers. Interspersed with remarks. By Sidney Melmoth, Esq. Singulæ quæque locum teneat sortita decentem. Philadelphia, John Watts.

An Abridgment of the History of New-England, designed for the use of young persons. By Hannah Adams. 12mo. Boston, Belcher & Armstrong.

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Rollin's Ancient History, illustrated with useful maps. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss. 8 vols. 8vo. Price $2 per vol. in boards.

The New American Practical Navigator. To be published in Feb. 1807. Newburyport, Edmund M. Blunt.

PROPOSED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

A Theological Dictionary, containing definitions of all religious terms; a comprehensive view of every article in the system of divinity; an impartial account of all the principal denominations, which have subsisted in the religious world, from the birth of Christ to the present day; together with an accurate statement of the most remarkable transactions and events recorded in ecclesiastical history. By Charles Buce. Philadelphia, W.W. Woodward.

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Now ready for the press, and will be published immediately after the next session of the general assembly of Virginia, Volume 2d of the Revised Code; by a gentleman of the bar. Large 8vo. Price $5 to subscribers. Richmond, Vir. Samuel Pleasants, jun.

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The Lay of the Last Minstrel, a poem, by Walter Scott, Esq. 12mo. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

Collins, Perkins, & Co. of New-York propose to put immediately to press, a new and valuable work, entitled, *French Homonyms*, or a collection of words, similar in sound, but different in meaning or spelling. By John Martin, professor of languages in New-York.

INTELLIGENCE.

AMERICA.

A number of persons, residing in the western part of the state of New-York, of whom several are represented as learned and opulent foreigners, naturalized here, have formed themselves into a church, or religious association, upon principles which exclude polemick questions and sectarian peculiarities. They disclaim human formularies of faith, as tests of christian communion, referring their members to the scriptures as the only rule of belief and practice; and they appear to think the liberty of religious inquiry and profession, unrestrained by the fear of temporal inconvenience, compatible with the interests of truth and virtue. Under the auspices of this description of persons, a society for promoting christian knowledge and practice is instituted, who have endeavoured to call the attention of the enlightened and serious publick to the objects of their association by the following publication.

At a meeting on September 20, 1806, of the *Society for promoting the knowledge of the Sacred Scriptures and the practice of the Gospel Doctrine*, Resolved to make the following publication:—

The members of the *Society for promoting the knowledge of the Sacred Scriptures and the practice of the Gospel Doctrine*, informed by extracts, lately published from the minutes of the *General Synod of the Reformed Dutch Churches* in this state, of the laudable endeavours of that High Reverend Body, to promote the interest of the Redeemer's Kingdom, think it becoming their character and christian profession, to cooperate with these endeavours, according to their ability, and in view of the situation allotted them by Divine Providence. The limited circumstances of the people of these western parts do not enable them at present, to afford pecuniary aid to their more wealthy brethren in the mercantile cities, for the particular purpose specified in the printed extracts of the General Synod. On the contrary, from the known generosity and affluence of our brethren, we might hope for pecuniary assistance from them, were they duly apprised of the various and increasing enemies of our Lord by whom we are surrounded. Notwithstanding the eminent blessings of a spiritual nature enjoyed at the hand of a merciful providence, our situation is rendered truly disagreeable by a growing fanaticism and enthusiasm which degrade the pure and excellent faith of our divine Master, and by a demoralizing infidelity, which, while it successfully triumphs against the absurd inventions of men, sacrilegiously attached to the religion of Jesus of Nazareth, proudly boasts of victory over christianity herself. Having deliberated on the radical causes of the prevailing evil and candidly dicussed the subject among ourselves, we are apprehensive that a shameful ignorance, on the one hand, and a disposition for licentiousness on the other, combine to give it birth, and that its only remedy lies in the diffusion of religious knowledge, and in a more exemplary deportment among the professed friends of the christian cause. Aware, however, of the difficulty of comprising in a single view the various causes, direct and remote, which contribute to the sad phenomenon: at the same time sensible, that the true causes must be apparent before our exertions to remove it can be directed in such a manner as to furnish a well grounded hope of success, the Society propose to their enlightened christian brethren the following questions; upon which the answers are expected before the first day of December, 1807, in a fair legible hand, copied by another, with a *Symbolum*, as usual, the author's name written in a separate sealed paper, superscribed with the symbolum of his dissertation, and forwarded with the dissertation, free of postage, to the Rev. John Sherman, Secretary of the Society.

I. What are the principal causes of the increasing fanaticism, enthusiasm, and infidelity within the limits of the Middle and Eastern States?

II. What are the most potent remedies for these moral diseases?

III. In what manner may these remedies be the most successfully applied?

The crowned dissertation upon these questions shall be published, and the author shall receive a premium of FIFTY DOLLARS. The second shall be noticed with an *accesset*.

Members of the Society, who write upon the subject, shall sign their dissertations with their proper names, without being candidates for the prize.

The Society also propose the following questions for 1808. "*What degree of knowledge in Oriental and Greek literature, Jewish antiquities, and Ecclesiastical History, is requisite to qualify a minister of the gospel to silence the cavils, and successfully to refute the objections of ancient and modern infidels, against the Jewish and christian revelations?*"

The *Society for promoting knowledge, &c.* appeal to the hearts of their christian brethren of all denominations, to co-operate with them in the important cause.

Each member of the society pays two dollars at his admission, and one dollar annually, so long as he continues to be a member.

Donations in money for the general purposes of the society, or in useful books and tracts, particularly *Bibles*, to be distributed among the poorer classes, will be thankfully received.

The money to be transmitted to Col. A. G. Mappa, treasurer, and the books (free of expense) to the Rev. John Sherman, minister of the Reformed Christian Church, both residing in Trenton, county of Oneida, and state of N. York.

A statement of the concerns of the society shall annually be made at their general meeting.

Signed by order of the Society,
JOHN SHERMAN, Sec'ry.

The *Reformed Christian Church*, in association with the members of the United Protestant Religious Society in the town of Trenton, Oneida county, and state of New-York, informed of the laudable exertions of the "*General Synod of the Reformed Dutch Church*" to establish a "*Professorate*," for the purpose of obtaining a more learned ministry, and thus to promote a correct and general knowledge of the sacred scriptures, have (though unable to contribute to this laudable undertaking of the General Synod) unanimously resolved, in view of their own situation, to co-operate so far in the general object of diffusing christian knowledge, as to make a collection twelve times a year, (viz. nine times at Oldenbarneveld, and three times at Holland's Patent, beginning with the first Sunday in October) for the following religious purposes:

Resolved 1st. That one half of the money collected, shall be entrusted to the Rev. John Sherman, our minister, for the purchase of books and tracts, written to promote the knowledge of the christian doctrine, who shall circulate them among the members of the church and society, and supply with bibles those of them whose low circumstances may require this aid.

Resolved 2d. That the other half of the money collected shall be placed in the hands of the Treasurer of *The Society for promoting the knowledge of the Sacred Scriptures*, to be disposed of by said society in aid of the benevolent purposes of their institution.

Resolved 3d. That the Rev. John Sherman shall be qualified to open a correspondence with, and to receive applications from any churches or religious societies, for the purpose of uniting and co-operating upon a more extensive scale in promoting the christian cause; provided he do not obligate the church or society in any manner whatsoever, without their previous consent or approbation.

Resolved 4th. That, as the *Religious Protestant United Society*, and *The Reformed Christian Church*, are constituted by persons of different denominations, the members of the church, in order that the publick may be acquainted with their religious standing, deem it becoming to publish the articles of their union.

Articles of union of the members of the Reformed Christian Church.

I. We acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to contain a revelation of God's will to mankind, and that they are in matters of religion, the only standard of doctrines and rules of practice.

II. We acknowledge that no other confession or test of christian fellowship and standing in the visible church of God ought to be established than that which Christ and his apostles made necessary, or on which they received believers in the gospel—Mat. xvi. 15, 16, and 17. Acts viii. 36 and 37. 1 John iv. 15, and 1 John v. 1.

III. Liberty of conscience shall be preserved inviolate. Every member shall be maintained in his right of free inquiry into the doctrines of scripture; in publishing what he believes the scriptures contain, and in practising according to his understanding of his duty. This liberty shall not be abridged, as to his understanding and practice respecting the ceremonies, ordinances, or positive institutions of christianity.

IV. The government and discipline shall be according to the direction of our Lord in Mat. xvii. 15, 16, and 17. The executive authority of the church shall be vested in the minister, the elders and deacons; but if any one suppose that by the church there mentioned, is intended the brotherhood generally, he shall have the liberty of referring his cause for adjudication to the body at large.

V. The officers of the church, elders and deacons, shall be chosen by ballot, and hold their office during the pleasure of the church, or choose to decline serving any longer.

VI. The mode of admission to the church shall be, that any person wishing to become a member, shall make known his desire to the consistory, the minister, elders, and deacons, who shall, if the applicant be a person of good moral character, refer his case for decision to the church at large.

VII. The Lord's Supper shall be celebrated four times a year, twice at Oldenbarneveld, and twice in Holland's Patent, on such particular Lord's days as shall be found convenient.

VIII. The name by which this church is designated shall be, *The Reformed Christian Church.*

By order of the meeting,
JOHN SHERMAN, Moderator.

We are informed that Mr. John Watts, of Philadelphia, is about to put to press a new and valuable work entitled the "Stranger in England." It is said to contain a more satisfactory and particular account of Great Britain, than any work which has hitherto appeared. In it the character and manners of the English, Irish, and Scotch are depicted in a style which marks the hand of a master and the judgment of a connoisieur. Rich with anecdote and critical remark, it presents not only a veritable picture of the present state of that country, in its moral and political relations, of which so little is at present known, notwithstanding our constant intercourse with it, but also exhibits a novel and highly interesting scene to the view of the traveller and the scholar. To this country such a work is invaluable, and we announce it with a full confidence that it will prove in no small degree gratifying to every class of readers.—U. S. Gaz.

Letters of Lord Lyttleton.—The subscribers intend to commit to press, in a few weeks, the first American edition of the "Letters of Lord Lyttleton the Younger." Conditions will soon be published, and subscription papers presented to the lovers of fine writing.

WRIGHT, GOODENOW, & Co.
Troy, N. Y. Oct. 1806.

The publick will we gratified to hear that a small volume of poems, written by Charlotte Richardson, with whose interesting life we have been acquainted through the medium of several periodical publications, has lately come to hand, and will be reprinted by Kimber, Conrad, & Co. of Philadelphia, in the course of a few weeks.

Fine Arts.—Mr. D. Edwin of Philadelphia has engraved and is now publishing, a very accurate and elegant *View of the Blood Vessels of the Human Body*, executed under the direction and with the assistance of Dr. Wistar. The execution of this engraving reflects great credit upon the skill, talents, and accuracy of Mr. Edwin, and will be found extremely useful to the students in physick and surgery, as well as to others who may wish to acquire a knowledge of the anatomy of the human body, particularly in regard to the blood vessels.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

The following arrangement has been made at the Royal Institution for twelve courses of lectures, to be delivered the ensuing season, by the undermentioned gentlemen. 1. On Chemistry, by H. Davy, F.R.S.—2. On Natural Philosophy, by William Allen, esq. F. L. S.—3. On English Literature, by Rev. T. F. Dibdin.—4. On Moral Philosophy, by Rev. Sidney Smith, A.M.—5. On Dramatick Poetry, by Rev. William Crowe, L.L.B. Publick Orator of the University of Oxford.—6. On Zoology, by Geo. Shaw, M. D. F. L. S. Librarian to the British Museum.—7. On Belles Lettres, by Rev. John Hewlett, B. D.—8. On Musick, by W. Crotch, M. D. Professor of Musick in the University of Oxford.—9. On the History of Commerce, by Rev. Edward Forster.—10. On Drawing in Water Colours, W. M. Craig, esq.—11. On Botany, J. E. Smith, M.D. F.R.S. and President of the Linnean Society.—12. On Perspective, by Mr. Wood.

GERMANY.

It is not without sincere satisfaction that the admirers of Gessner's Muse, and the amateurs of the arts will learn that his family has engaged Charles William Kolbe, an eminent German engraver, to give to the publick, at a moderate price a series of the best landscapes executed by Gessner. That artist has obtained permission of his patroness, the princess of Dessau, to devote some years to this purpose at Zurich itself, amidst the family and the friends of the amiable poet. The first number of this work has recently made its appearance. It contains four prints in large folio, representing two of the best pieces in water colours in the collection of Gessner's widow, and two drawings in the cabinet of the princess of Dessau. The two first are known by the titles of the Fishermen and the Fountain in the Wood. The subjects of the two others are pastoral scenes taken from the Idyls: Daphnis, and Phillis, and Chloe. The execution proves that the honourable task of introducing these performances to the notice of the publick could not be confided to abler hands. M. Kolbe, deeply impressed with the spirit and the manner of his model, has rendered his conceptions with equal feeling and accuracy.

An important fact with regard to the theory of electricity, has recently been discovered by M. Bienvenu. By varying his experiments he has found, in contradiction to the received opinion, that glass and rosin produce the same kind of electricity, and that the difference depends upon the rubbers. With a cat's skin he electrizes an electrophorus of rosin, which manifests negative electricity: an electrophorus made of a piece of glass, and rubbed with a cat's skin, manifests exactly the same kind of electricity as that of rosin. This experiment proves that if the conductor of an electrical machine constantly gives positive electricity, the reason lies in the morocco cushions, which possess the property of developing the electricity of glass, which, received on the conductor, communicates to it a positive electricity. To prove this, he substitutes cushions of cat's skin in their stead; the glass is then negatively electrized, and the conductor furnishing it with the electricity it has lost, manifests a negative electricity.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES, &c.

from Oct. 20 to Nov. 20, 1806.

THE temperature of the atmosphere has been pretty equable during the past month. The weather generally fair, yet varied, with moderate rains, and some snow. The most prevalent winds have been the north-west, next to that the south-west, and then the north-east.

The cases of disease have been much diminished in number this month. The most common complaint continues to be *fever*; accompanied with local inflammation more rarely than before. A few cases of *cholera* have occurred; of *cynanche maligna*; of *rheumatism*, and of *pneumonic inflammation.*

ERRATA.—In the first page of the last Anthology, in Mr. Adams' Disquisition, the first sentence of the 6th paragraph should read thus:—

"Philosophy! which ages of superstition idolized as a Divinity, and which, though stripped of those false trappings, still retains attributes and attractions, worthy the homage, and challenging the love and admiration of man in every age."

In the lines "On listening to a Cricket," last line of 2d and 10th verses, for *shall* read *shalt*—In 6th verse, 1st line, for *faithful* read *fitful.*

THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

DECEMBER, 1806.

For the Anthology.

THE REMARKER. *No.* 16.

............................a gibing spirit,
Whose influence is begot of that loose grace,
Which shallow laughing hearers give to fools. SHAKESPEARE.

THE scanty portion of happiness, and the abundant diffusion of misery over the world, has been a constant source of lamentation in all ages, and in all states of society; but that the degrees of each depend more upon ourselves, than we are willing to believe, is perhaps as well founded in truth, as it may appear to be paradoxical: to complain of fortune, and reproach each other, are privileges we seem to cling to as tenaciously, as to existence; to estimate them above the price of happiness itself; and think, that peace and contentment would be purchased dearly by making them a sacrifice. In proportion as the progress of science and extension of literature have tended to ameliorate the condition of life, and refinement of taste to polish the manners; mankind have been ingenious to counterbalance these blessings by fictitious sorrows and artificial evils; by listlessness and languor, by peevishness and spleen, by arrogance and conceit, which reason is not suffered to repress, and by insatiable vanity, which, generally being as coarse in taste, as voracious in appetite, can find some kind of gratification in every place. But perhaps there is nothing, which so much disturbs the tranquillity of social life, as that mocking, gibing spirit, which the Poet of Nature has justly condemned; which, though the possessors flatter themselves to be the effect of superiour quickness and penetration, has ever been considered by the wise, as characteristick of a light and superficial mind.

In highly cultivated society superiour talents are necessary to attain eminence, and even they will not always ensure success; but though the spirit of honourable ambition is felt by few, the desire of notice and distinction is common to all; hence the labours of egotism to display itself, and the exertions of vanity to extort admiration; hence peevish invective is indulged in the hope of being dreaded as well-directed satire, forward impertinence attempts to impose itself for an easiness of address, and flippant pertness sets up for a wit to rail at the ignorance and dulness of mankind. This gibing spirit, so frequently mentioned by Shakespeare, appears to have excited in his bosom a great degree of indignation and contempt; of contempt for the quality itself, as the offspring of a fool's vanity, and of indignation at those "shallow laughing hearers," whose injudicious applause gives it an influence, which renders it mischievous. That this propensity should abound in polished life is not to be wondered at, when we consider how insidiously vanity mixes itself with all our actions, and how much its sphere of exercise is enlarged by the decoration, pageantry, and caprice, which attend on luxury and fashion: but that this spirit should acquire an influence to make itself dreaded, we must account for by supposing these laughing hearers to be as cowardly, as they are complaisant, and that their applauses proceed as much from fear of being subject to its effects, as from the pleasure they take in seeing it employed on others.

It is evident, that ignorance and vanity are the legitimate parents of mockery and flouting. Those who best know themselves find imperfections enough at home to beget humility, and tenderness to the failings of others; and those who have made some advances towards the temple of wisdom, find more pleasure in the extension of their prospects, than pride in reviewing the small comparative progress they have made; but superficial minds, having reached as far as their feeble vision enabled them to see, believe they have attained the summit of excellence, and sit down in confidence to enjoy all the immunities of vanity; its pretensions being frequently not only unreasonable, but unbounded, are sometimes disputed; this generates a petulant disposition, which ferments and vents itself in ebullitions of petty malice and mean detraction. The imperfect state of man affords an abundance of crimes and follies, of deviations and mistakes, of strange and ridiculous circumstances, which require no extraordinary penetration to discover. It is easy enough for little beings to spend their time in hunting out the little foibles, humours, awkwardness, or peculiarity, of their neighbours; to hold them up to ridicule, and delight themselves and "shallow laughing hearers," with descriptions incessantly repeated. Cats, owls, and ferrets delight to hunt after vermin, because they feed on it afterwards; and monkeys will, for their own particular gratification, perform that office for which decency and cleanliness require the assistance of a comb; but generous natures find no gratification in such employment; their aim is to attain superiority, rather than degrade it; to encourage the diffident, rather than overwhelm them with confusion; and to support modest pretensions and honest endeavours, when in danger of being brow-beat by arrogance, or of shrinking from the jeers of a gibing spirit. A gibing spirit requires neither the keenness of satire, nor the brilliance of wit; it often affects these qualities, but supplies their place by prying curiosity, a spiteful temper, unblushing assurance, a loud tone, mimickry, exaggeration, and not seldom by falsehood. It is most frequently possessed by those whose vanity has been mortified, or whose extravagant pretensions few were willing to allow; by those whose chimerical notions of fancied happiness experience has overthrown, or whose malevolence has been defeated, and recoiled upon themselves; but it reigns triumphant at the tea table, when thronged with gossips from every quarter, and of every kind. The ancient maiden, who too late regrets refusing offers as good as she had any right to expect; the gaudy or the slatternly wife, who married not from the impulse of virtuous affection, but that she might, with more impunity, indulge her darling propensities; the pretty insipid miss, whose head would be perfectly vacant of ideas, were there not in the world such things as muslin and lace, and trinkets and gewgaws, and dancing-masters and beaux; the coxcomb, who having left the college or shop, applies to his tailor and shoemaker to shape him into a gentleman, and after visiting the brothels and gambling-houses of foreign countries, calls himself a buck, and a man of the world; these generally compose the mass of "shallow laughing hearers," whose "loose grace" or vague and worthless applause give to a gibing spirit the influence and eclat it sometimes possesses; upon such suffrages it plumes itself, and acquires a confidence, which simple honesty and unaffected goodness observes with astonishment and fear, and which stern wisdom cannot easily put down.

Dec. 18, 1806.

CRITICISM.

"A SKETCH OF THE GENIUS AND WRITINGS OF DR. BEATTIE, WITH EXTRACTS FROM HIS LIFE AND LETTERS."

Concluded from p. 576.

ALTHOUGH Dr. Beattie experienced the happiness, as a philosopher, to have almost all the eminent divines on his side, such as Porteus, Hurd, Markham, &c. yet it seems he had not the unanimous concurrence of the Bench of Bishops. For in a letter to Mrs. Montagu, of March 13, 1774, he says, "Pray, Madam, be so good as to favour me with some account of the Bishop of Carlisle, Dr. Law, if he happens to be of your acquaintance. His Lordship, in a book lately published, has been pleased to attack me in a strange manner,* though in few words, and very superciliously seems to condemn my whole book; because I believe "in the identity of the human soul, and that there are innate powers, and implanted instincts in our nature." He hints, too, at my being a native of Scotland, and imputes my *unnatural way* of reasoning, (for so he characterizes it) to my ignorance of what has been written on the other side of the question, by some late authors. It would be a very easy matter for me to return such an answer to his lordship, as would satisfy the world, that he has been rather hasty in signing my condemnation; but perhaps it will be better to take no notice of it; I shall be determined by your advice. His doctrine is, that the human soul forfeited its immortality by the fall, but regained it in consequence of the merits of Jesus Christ; and that it cannot exist without the body; and must, therefore, in the interval between death and the resurrection, remain in a state of non-existence. The theory is not a new one; but his Lordship seems to be one of the most sanguine of its adherents. Some of the objections, drawn from the scripture, he gets the better of by a mode of criticism, which, I humbly think, would not be admitted in a commentary upon any other book."

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* Considerations on the Theory of Religion, by Edmund Lord Bishop of Carlisle, p. 431. *Forbes.*

The Bishop was of a school of philosophers and divines, whom we have since had the happiness of seeing go out of fashion. But when the Editor was at Cambridge, the prejudices in favour of the dry, coarse, and fallacious modes of thinking and reasoning, of this hard old man, who then resided there, had not ceased. He was father of the present Lord Ellenborough.

In 1776, Dr. Beattie published his "Essays on Poetry and Musick; Laughter and Ludicrous Composition: and on the utility of Classical Learning." "My principal purpose," says he, "was to make my subject plain and entertaining; and, as often as I could, the vehicle of moral instruction; a purpose, to which every part of the philosophy of the human mind, and indeed of science in general, may, and ought, in my opinion, to be made in some degree subservient."

I will now add a few, and a very few, miscellaneous extracts; for I fear this article already grows too long.

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1785. "Johnson's harsh and foolish censure of Mrs. Montagu's book does not surprise me; for I have heard him speak contemptuously of it. It is, for all that, one of the best, most original, and most elegant pieces of criticism in our language, or any other. Johnson had many of the talents of a critick; but his want of temper, his violent prejudices, and something, I am afraid, of an evious turn of mind, made him often a very unfair one. Mrs. Montagu was very kind to him; but Mrs. Montagu has more wit than any body; and Johnson could not bear that any person should be thought to have wit but himself. Even Lord Chesterfield, and, what is more strange, even Mr. Burke he would not allow to have wit! He preferred Smollett to Fielding. He would not grant that Armstrong's poem on "Health," or the tragedy of "Douglas," had any merit. He told me that he never read Milton through, till he was obliged to do it, in order to gather words for his Dictionary. He spoke very peevishly of the Masque of Comus; and when I urged that there was a great deal of exquisite poetry in it; "Yes," said he, "but it is like gold hid under a rock;" to which I made no reply; for indeed I did not well understand it. Pray, did you ever see Mr. Potter's "Remarks on Johnson's Lives of the Poets?" It is very well worth reading."

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1788. "What Mrs. Piozzi says of Goldsmith is perfectly true. He was a poor fretful creature, eaten up with affectation and envy. He was the only person I ever knew, who acknowledged himself to be envious. In Johnson's presence he was quiet enough; but in his absence expressed great uneasiness in hearing him praised. He envied even the dead; he could not bear that Shakespeare should be so much admired as he is. There might, however, be something like magnanimity in envying Shakespeare and Dr. Johnson; as in Julius Cæsar's weeping to think, that at an age at which he had done so little, Alexander should have done so much. But surely Goldsmith had no occasion to envy me; which, however, he certainly did; for he owned it, (though when we met, he was always very civil ;) and I received undoubted information, that he seldom missed an opportunity of speaking ill of me behind my back. Goldsmith's common conversation was a strange mixture of absurdity and silliness ; of silliness so great as to make me think sometimes that he affected it. Yet he was a great genius of no mean rank : somebody, who knew him well, called him an *inspired idiot*. His ballad of " Edwin and Angelina," is exceedingly beautiful ; and in his two other poems, though there be great inequalities, there is pathos, energy, and even sublimity."

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In 1790 Beattie lost his eldest son ; and in 1796, his remaining son. These successive shocks were too much for a tender heart ! already half broken by the sorrow for their mother's incurable malady. From the last event he at times lost his senses. " A deep gloom," says he, " hangs upon me, and disables all my faculties ; and thoughts so strange sometimes occur to me, as to make me " fear that I am not," as Lear says, " in my perfect mind."

Yet, on May 15, 1797, he wrote a letter to Mr. Frazer Tytler, somewhat in his former manner ; from whence the following extract is derived.

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" There is one translation, which I greatly admire, but am sure you never saw, as you have not mentioned it : the book is indeed very rare ; I obtained it with difficulty by the friendship of Tom Davies, an old English bookseller ; I mean, Dobson's " Paradisus Amissus ;" my son studied, and I believe, read every line of it. It is more true to the original, both in sense and spirit, than any other poetical version of length, that I have seen. The author must have had an amazing command of Latin phraseology, and a very nice ear in harmony. ****.

" Being curious to know some particulars of Dobson, I inquired of him at Johnson, who owned he had known him, but did not seem inclined to speak on the subject. But Johnson hated Milton from his heart ; and he wished to be himself considered as a good Latin poet ; which however, he never was, as may be seen by his translation of Pope's Messiah. All that I could ever hear of Dobson's private life was, that in his old age he was given to drinking. My edition of his book is dated 1750. It is dedicated to Mr. Benson, who was a famous admirer of Milton ; and from the dedication it would seem to have been written at his desire, and under his patronage.*

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* Dr. J. Warton says, that Benson " gave Dobson £.1000 for his Latin translation of Paradise Lost. Dobson had acquired great reputation by his translation of Prior's Solomon, the first book of which he finished, when he was a scholar at Winchester college. He had not at that time, as he told me, (for I knew him well) read Lucretius, which would have given a richness and force to his verses ; the chief fault of which was a monotony, and want of variety of Virgilian pauses. Mr. Pope wished him to translate the Essay on Man, which he began to do ; but relinquished on account of the impossibility of imitating its brevity in another language. He has avoided the monotony abovementioned in his Milton ; which monotony was occasioned by translating a poem in rhyme. Bishop Hare, a capable judge, used to mention his Solomon as one of the purest pieces of modern Latin poetry. Though he had so much felicity in translating, yet his original poems, of which I have seen many, were very feeble and flat, and contained no mark of genius. He had no great stock of general literature, and

1798. "I am acquainted with many parts of your excursion through the north of England, and very glad that you had my old friend Mr. Gray's "Letters" with you, which are indeed so well written, that I have no scruple to pronounce them the best letters, that have been printed in our language. Lady Mary Montagu's "Letters" are not without merit, but are too artificial and affected to be confided in as true; and Lord Chesterfield's have much greater faults; indeed, some of the greatest that letters can have: but Gray's letters are always sensible, and of classical conciseness and perspicuity. They very much resemble what his conversation was. He had none of the airs of either a scholar or a poet; and though on those, and all other subjects, he spoke to me with the utmost freedom, and without any reserve, he was, in general company, much more silent than one could have wished."

Dr. Beattie died Aug. 18, 1803, æt. 68.

His character has been as justly and eloquently, as briefly, sketched by Mrs. Montagu, in a letter to himself. "We considered you," says she, "as a poet, with admiration; as a philosopher, with respect; as a Christian, with veneration; and as a friend, with affection." He clearly directed his ambition to excellence, rather as a philosopher, than as a poet; and yet it is apparent, that these studies were not congenial to his natural taste; but that they fatigued and oppressed him. In these paths he seems to have arrived at the utmost height, of which his powers were capable; but this is far from being the case with the poetry he has left. Beautiful as is his Minstrel, yet, had he concluded it on the plan he originally intended, which I must venture, in opposition to Dr. Aikin, to say, was easily within the scope of his genius, he would have contributed very materially both to its variety and its interest. I will add that the innocent and exalted occupation might have soothed his broken spirits, and gilded the clouds of his latter days.

It is not easy to guess, when we consider the opinions which this excellent author himself promulgated in his philosophical works, on what ground he depreciated the dignity, or the use, of his capacity as a poet. But it is certain that, at least for the last thirty years of his life, he did slight and neglect it most unjustly. There is no adequate reason for considering it inconsistent with his professional functions, which his exemplary virtue induced him to discharge with uncommon industry and attention. It would, on the contrary, have relieved the toil of them, by a delightful diversity of ideas. But it may be suspected, that there was a certain timidity in this good man's mind, not entirely consonant with the richness of his endowments. In the cause of religion indeed, his piety made him bold; but he was otherwise a little too sensible of popular prejudices.

The goodness of the cause and the particular occasion, has added an accidental value to his great philosophical work, "The Essay on Truth." But I believe I am not singular in asserting, that his genius is least capable of rivalry in that "Minstrel," on which he

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....

was by no means qualified to pronounce on what degree of learning Pope possessed; and I am surprised that Johnson should quote him, as saying, "I found Pope had more learning than I expected." *Warton's Pope*, V. 240.

bestowed so little comparative attention: while it is apparent that, even there, his severer studies occasionally encumbered and depressed his fancy. Burns knew better the strength which nature had bestowed on him, and giving full scope to it, succeeded accordingly.

The Letters which are now published, exhibit Dr. Beatie's moral character in the most amiable light. Their style unites ease and elegance; and they prove the correctness of his opinions, the nicety of his taste, and the soundness of his judgment. They discover, above all, the tenderness of his heart, and the fervour of his religion. But the frankness of truth demands from me the confession, that they do not appear to me to possess those characteristick excellences, as literary compositions, which enchant us in the letters of Burns and Cowper; and which none but themselves could have written. He has nothing like the touching simplicity of the poet of Weston; nor any thing like the ardent eloquence of the Bard of Airshire.* He scarce ever indulges in sallies congenial with the rich warblings, which used to flow so copiously from the harp of the inspired Edwin.

I would now willingly enter into the peculiar traits both of the poetical and prose works, on which Beattie's fame was founded; but this article is already too long; (I hope my readers will not think it out of place;) and I have now neither room nor leisure for more, except to say, that as a poet he possessed an originality, and an excellence, to which I doubt whether justice has yet been done.†

July 2, 1806.

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* I do not recollect that the names of Cowper, or Burns, once occur in Beattie's own letters, which is singular.

† It has long been my wish, if Providence should ever permit me a little continued leisure from the sorrows and perplexities, by which I have for some years been agitated, to enter into an entire separate Disquisition on the Poetical Character; its tendencies; the mode in which it should be cherished; and the benefits to be derived from it.

BIOGRAPHY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

[Concluded from page 567.]

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περι την ψυχην αγαθα.—PLAT. de Leg. IV.

WE cannot enter into a particular examination of Bentley's corrections on the present occasion, as the life of our favourite critick has already extended far beyond the proposed limits. One emendation we must transcribe, as it is very happy, and elucidates a passage which was neither measure nor sense. Lib. V. 733.

Utque per ingentes populus describitur urbes
Præcipuumque patres retinent, et proximum equester
Ordo locum; populumque equiti, populoque subire
Vulgus iners videas, et jam sine nomine turbam:
Sic etiam magno quædam RESPUBLICA *mundo est.*

In the last line some copies have *respondere*, and the best manuscript has *res pendere*, instead of *respublica*, which we owe to the critical acumen of Dr. Bentley. The word was originally, he supposes, written *resp.* and from this the blundering transcribers derived their *respondere* : of which the learned editor in his note says : *Respondere conjugationis tertiæ omnem barbariem exsuperat. Nec scias numeri an sententia sit pejor.*"

Toup mentions this passage in his *Epistola Critica* with its due portion of praise : "*Quin et, dum hæc scribo, commodum in mentem venit emendationis Bentleianæ in Manilium, quam hæc occasione monitus, hic in transitu sublevandam curabo, nam et mea post me alii curabunt scilicet.*" He then quotes the passage, and gives the last lines as it stands in the common copies :

Sic etiam magno quædam respondere mundo.

Locus elegantissimus, sed versus postremus manifesto corruptus est : emendabat Bentleii sagacitas :

Sic etiam in magno quædam RESPUBLICA *mundo est.*

Quod alii veri, alii falsi simile esse dicuntego vero nihil ertius esse affirmo. Fidem faciet Lactantius, Epit. cap. 2. *Sic* IN MUNDI REPUBLICA, *nisi unus fuisset moderator*, &c. There are several other emendations, which display as much critical sagacity, and equally merit adoption ; though Bentley has been accused of pretending not to understand passages in Manilius, merely to have an opportunity of exercising his abilities at correction. We do not pretend to vouch for the truth of this accusation, but must confess that we do not give it much credit. Such an affectation of ignorance could only produce ridicule, for if Bentley chose to be blind and dull himself, he could not suppose that the world would, therefore, be less sharp sighted.

The Astronomicon of Manilius was the last classical work which Dr. Bentley lived to publish, although he was among the first authors on whom he employed his corrective talents, with a view to publication. In the preface to his immortal dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris, he says : "I had then prepared a Manilius for the press, which had been published already, had not the dearness of paper, and the want of good types, and some other occasions, hindered me."

In the former part of this life, we intentionally omitted mentioning Bentley's views, with regard to Manilius. We shall now transcribe from the same preface whatever relates to this subject.

Bentley had been accused by Boyle of sending a manuscript treatise about Theodorus Mallius, written by Rubenius, to Grevius, for publication, without mentioning Sir Edward Sherburn's name, from whom he had received it. This charge Bentley fully confutes. "I had prepared, he says, a new edition of Manilius ; which design being known abroad, occasioned my acquaintance with Sir Edward Sherburn, who had formerly translated the first book of that poet into English verse, and explained it with a large commentary. He had got together some old and scarce editions, which he courteously lent me ; and beside those, he had purchased at Antwerp, by the means of a bookseller, a whole box full of papers of the famous Gaspar Gevartius's, who undertook an edition of the same poet, but was prevented by death."

Among these papers he found little of any consequence, but the manuscript already mentioned, which he sent to the learned Grevius, who quite forgot the circumstances of Sir Edward Sherburn's box, when he published the book, and incautiously dedicated it to Dr. Bentley. He, however, afterwards apologized very sufficiently for this neglect, in a letter to our learned critick, which he thus concludes: "*Vale—et tibi persuade, te doctos omnes viros maximè facere, rumpantur ut ilia Codris; sed neminem esse qui te majoris faciat, et magis æstimet quam ego te facio.*" In the former part of the epistle, he confesses that the omission of Sir Edward's name was *his own fault*, and that Bentley was not in the least censurable.

In the same box of Gevartius's papers, there were two copies of a discourse on the age of the poet Manilius, by the learned Godefridus Wendelinus. One of these Sir Edward presented to Bentley, who proposed to prefix the whole, or a part of it, to his edition of the Astronomicon. It is much, therefore, to be lamented, that the Doctor did not write the preface or *prolegomena* to this edition, as the learned world might then have been in possession of his sentiments with regard to this author, and his various editors and commentators, more fully than they are stated by his nephew.

In the account of Bentley's early life, one circumstance was omitted. About the time of the publication of his Epistle to Dr. Mill, on the Chronography of Malela, he published a specimen of a new edition of Philostratus, at Leipsic. Only one sheet was printed. This circumstance is mentioned by the indefatigable Fabricius, and by Olearius, in his preface to the works of Philostratus. They do not, however, mention the reason of his laying his plan aside. He intended to have given the text in a more correct manner than former editors, with notes and a new Latin version. We cannot help lamenting that Bentley did not prosecute his design. Every edition of the ancients executed by such a scholar must have been valuable; and it is rather surprising, when his deep knowledge of Greek is considered, that he did not devote his time seriously to publishing more of the writers in that language. He executed, indeed, much less than he proposed; but the quarrels, into which he was involved by his enemies, may, in some measure, account for the fewness of the authors, whose works appeared under the auspices of the great Bentley.

In the year 1740 Dr. Bentley lost his lady, whom he had married soon after he was preferred to the mastership of Trinity-College. He did not long survive her, but died the fourteenth day of July, 1742, and was buried in Trinity-College chapel. The following short inscription is placed on the stone which covers his grave:

H. S. E.
RICHARDUS BENTLEY,
S. T. P. R.
OBIIT XIV. Jul. 1742.
ÆTATIS 80.

These are all the monumental honours of this great man, who needed not the inscription of a tomb-stone to transmit his memory to posterity*.

He left behind him three children. His son, Mr. Richard Bentley, who was educated under the Doctor's inspection, at Trinity College, of which he was chosen fellow, succeeded his father as Royal Librarian at St. James's, but resigned that place in 1745. He died in the year 1782, and was more eminent for his elegant taste in the polite arts, than for his philological acquisitions. He displayed his ingenuity and fancy in the admirable designs which he made for Mr. Gray's poems, which were afterwards engraved & published. To his pen the publick are indebted for the tragedy of Philodamus, which Mr. Gray esteemed so highly, that he wrote a commentary on it, and pronounced it to be one of the first poetical compositions in the English language. Good *dramatick poems*, however, are not always good *plays*. It was introduced on the stage, above fifteen years after its publication, in 1782, at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden, but it did not succeed.

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* Biog. Brit. v. 1. p. 242. note FF.

Dr. Bentley's elder daughter, Elizabeth, was married about the year 1727, to Sir Humphry Ridge, the eldest son of Mr. Ridge, who possessed a considerable fortune, and was brewer to the navy at Portsmouth. A grandson of the learned Dr. Cumberland, Bishop of Peterborough, married his younger daughter, Joanna, a few years after, and died not long ago Bishop of Kilmore, in Ireland. Their son, Mr. Cumberland, who is so well known in the dramatick world, and who defended the character of Dr. Bentley against the attacks of the Bishop of London, may exclaim

> *Descendam magnorum haud unquam indignus avorum.*

From the grandson of Dr. Bentley, and the great grandson of the Bishop of Peterborough, literary abilities might be naturally expected.

But these were not the only *offspring* which Dr. Bentley left behind him.

> “*Est tibi quæ natos Bibliotheca parit.*”

Besides his ample collections for the Greek Testaments and Jerom's Latin version, he left an Homer, with marginal notes and emendations, preparatory to an edition which he proposed to publish; and a corrected copy of the Bishop of Peterborough's celebrated book, *De Legibus Naturæ*. Both of these † are intended to be laid before the publick. Almost all his classical authors were enriched with his manuscript notes, and are still in the possession of his executor,[*] Dr. Richard Bentley, or Mr. Cumberland. From one of these, in the year 1744, Squire procured Dr. Bentley's *Animadversiones* on Plutarch's treatise *De Iside et Osiride*, and by the consent of the executors, incorporated them into his edition of that piece, with those of Markland and other commentators. Many of these corrections bear the genuine mark of critical sagacity, which Bentley has stamped in a greater or less degree on all his performances.

In 1746, among the prefaces and dedications, which the learned Alberti prefixed to his splendid edition of Hesychius, appeared an inedited letter written by Dr. Bentley, in the year 1714, to John Christian Biel, at Brunswick, *De Glosis sacris in Hesychio insititiis*. This is a very curious and valuable letter, as it shews the great advantages which Bentley derived from this lexicographer, in the prosecution of his studies, and at what an early period that marked attention, and extraordinary acuteness displayed themselves, which shone forth so conspicuously afterwards in all our critick's philological disquisitions.

In 1760 Mr. Horace Walpole, whose singular abilities and strenuous exertions in the cause of literature are superiour to our praise, printed, at Strawberry hill, a splendid edition of Lucan, in quarto, with the notes and corrections of

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[*] Biog. Brit. pp. 244, 247.

Dr. Bentley. The superintendance of the press was committed to Mr. Cumberland, who performed his part of the work with equal learning and fidelity.

The publick had been long in possession of some of Bentley's annotations on Lucan, which were inserted in his remarks on Collins' Freethinking. This work, however, added a fresh laurel to his wreath, as he has restored many passages by his judicious and elegant corrections, which were absolutely unintelligible, and elucidated many difficulties by his acuteness, which had baffled the sagacity of former annotators.

Such are the particulars which we have been able to collect concerning the life and writings of Dr. Richard Bentley. In the mode of arrangement, a plan has been adopted very different from that which the ingenious authors of the *Biographia Britannica* have pursued. The transactions of his life, and the account of his writings, have been blended in the same narrative. For the publications of an author, like the marches and countermarches of a general, form the chief part of his history, and ought surely never to be separated from the relation of private or other occurrences. To the accounts of this great man which have already been published we have added many particulars, and have ventured to intersperse our narrative with critical remarks on his different works, in order to render it more worthy the attention of our learned readers. But to close these memoirs. We shall conclude with the words with which the learned Englishman, Toup, finishes his *Epistola Critica* to Bishop Warburton: "Atque hic finem facio *vitæ* prolixiori: in qua si quid, currente rota, inconsulte aut intemperanter nimis, qui mos nostrorum hominum est, in Bentleium nostrum dixi id omne pro indicto velim: BENTLEIUM inquam, Britanniæ nostræ decus immortale:—quem nemo vituperare ausit, nisi fungus; nemo non laudet, nisi Momus.

"His saltem adcumulem donis, ac fungar inani
"Munere."——

T. T.

For the Monthly Anthology.

SILVA.

No. 22.

Inter silvas Academi quærere verum. HOR.
To range for truth in Academick groves.

VOLTAIRE.

OF this most distinguished name in French literature we may say, many have written better, but none in the last century so much. Yet he will forever be exempt from the common fate of such authors, the load of whose indifferent productions weighs down and ultimately sinks the rest. All the paths of learning were open to him, and we are not therefore to wonder, that in some his progress was short. He is perhaps greater in poetry, than in any other of his undertakings; yet he was much inferiour to many of his contemporaries in classical erudition. But the charm of his style delights all, whom his knowledge fails to instruct. When he ceases to astonish by profundity, he engages by his ingenuity. Omnis Aristippum decuit color, et status, et res.

In our country he is best known as a historian, and his character may be quoted with advantage from the most learned of historians. "I believe that Voltaire had for this work, (age of Louis XIV.) an advantage, which he has seldom enjoyed. When he treats of a distant period, he is not a man to turn over musty monkish writers to instruct himself. He follows some compilation, varnishes it over with the magick of his style, and produces a *most agreeable*, *superficial*, *inaccurate performance*. But there the information, both written and oral, lay within his reach, and he seems to have taken great pains to consult it. Without any thing of the majesty of the great historians, he has comprized in two small volumes a variety of facts, told in an easy, clear, and lively style. To this merit he has added that of throwing aside all trivial circumstances, and choosing no events, but such as are either instructive or entertaining."*

WATER SPOUTS.

We have summer and winter storms in Thomson, and many a student has trembled with other dread, than of his tutor, over the description of the tempest in Æn. I.; even one of our most interesting poets has chosen a "Shipwreck" for his subject, and adorned it with every aggravation of misfortune, and every charm of language. But we are in these cases rather interested in the consequences, than terrified by the instant appearance of the danger. What poetick picture in Homer, or Virgil, or in the greatest master of the terrifick, Milton, surpasses, or even equals, the following description of a water-spout.

. . . . Oft, while wonder thrill'd my breast, my eyes
To heav'n have seen the watry column rise.
Slender at first the subtle fume appears,
And wreathing round and round its volume rears,
Thick as a mast the vapour swells its size;
A curling whirlwind lifts it to the skies;
The tube now straitens, now in width extends,
And in a hov'ring cloud its summit ends;
Still gulp on gulp in sucks the rising tide;
Till now the tide, with cumbrous wreath supplied,
Full gorg'd, and black'ning, spreads, and moves more slow,
And waving trembles to the waves below.
Thus, when to shun the summer's sultry beam,
The thirsty heifer seeks the cooling stream,
The eager horse-leech, fixing on her lips,
Her blood with ardent throat insatiate sips,
Till the gorg'd glutton, swell'd beyond her size,
Drops from her wounded hold, and bursting dies.
So bursts the cloud, o'erloaded with its freight,
And the dash'd ocean staggers with the weight.—*Camoen's Lus. 5. tr. Mickle.*

AMERICAN TRAVELLERS.

Foreign travel should be the last, and therefore must be an important, part of the education of a gentleman. Though it does not strengthen the mind, it purifies it from the disease of prejudices, inhaled with the atmosphere of our native community; though it cannot create taste, it refines and directs it; and though it may not confirm the moral principles, it certainly polishes the manners. Some have ascribed to it miraculous power upon the moral constitution, rendering the foolish wise, and the avaricious munificent. But the authority of Horace in all questions more difficult than this, in all questions where knowledge of human nature will influence the decision, is absolute. *Coelum, non animum, mutant, qui trans mare currunt.* The vicious disposition is never changed by change of place; nor will he ever become profound, who is originally shallow, though he pass even the limits of the fame of Tully, the waters of the Tigris, or the cliffs of Caucasus. Men of inferiour minds may often be rendered serviceable by sober discipline, at home, whose only acquisition from travel will be to make their folly vivacious, and their ignorance loud and conceited. The incongruous vulgarities of England and France, of Italy and Germany unite in many, like the colours of Harlequin's coat, whose dissimilarity is the more conspicuous from their juxtaposition.

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* Gibbon's Miscel. Works.

There seems to have been little system among our countrymen in visiting foreign regions. More have gone for business than for health, and more for health than for information. Few have been able to boast more than the least valuable half of the experience of Ulysses, *Qui mores hominum multorum vidit et urbes.* We have sent abroad many gentlemen, but they have sometimes on the continent of Europe been desirous to pass for Englishmen; because American travellers are too often our sailors brutal and vicious, or factors indigent and illiterate. The English have been contemptuously denominated by their old enemies a nation of shopkeepers; and, as we are descended from them, and are thought to have degenerated, the French will soon call us a community of hucksters. The notion often entertained of us is, that, when incited by prospect of gain, nothing is too dangerous for us to attempt, nothing too infamous for us to perform. Hence to defraud a trader from America is deemed more a trial of skill, than a violation of the laws of morality.

SIR JOHN DENHAM.

O could I flow like thee, and make thy stream
My great example, as it is my theme!
Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong without rage; without o'erflowing, full.

Of this famous passage, to which Dryden has nothing equal, and Pope nothing superiour, Dr. Johnson has an excellent criticism, concluding in this remarkable language..." It has beauty peculiar to itself, and must be numbered among those felicities, which cannot be produced at will by wit and labour, but must arise unexpectedly in some hour propitious to poetry." The "strength of Denham" was long reverenced by our poets; and I should unwillingly believe, that his simplicity of language, which always accompanies energy of thought, is the reason of his being less regarded, than formerly. Pope's "Windsor Forest" is an imitation of "Cooper's Hill;" yet, although the whole compass of English descriptive poetry offers no rival to the picture of the Thames in about forty lines of the latter, Pope has ten readers, where Denham has one.

Translation, which now composes so large a part of our literature, had been long confined in the disgraceful shackles of literal exactness. *No faithful interpreter* in England, spurning the fear of his pedagogue, had yet dared to follow the dictate of reason and the advice of Horace, *Nec verbum verbo curabis reddere*, before Denham pointed the way. He gives the perfect eulogy of a perfect translator in a single line, "True to his sense, but truer to his fame."

No poet, ancient or modern, whose subject was not chosen expressly to afford moral and religious instruction, has so many ethical axioms; and his advice is better on politicks, than any other theme. The mention of *Magna Charta* leads him into the causes of the civil wars, and he may be considered as prophesying in almost every line. His master Charles had good reason, soon after, to think,

Who gives constrain'd, but his own fear reviles,
Not thank'd, but scorn'd; nor are they gifts, but spoils.

The futility of the royal artifices, and the insanity and violence of the popular party, are finely illustrated.

When a calm river, rais'd by sudden rains,
Or snows dissolv'd, o'erflows th' adjoining plains,
The husbandmen with high-rais'd banks secure
Their greedy hopes, and this he can endure;
But if with bays and dams they strive to force
His channel to a new, or narrow course,
No longer then within his banks he dwells,
First to a torrent, then a deluge swells;
Stronger and fiercer by restraint he roars,
And knows no bound, but makes his power his shores.

LOTTERIES.

To all lotteries I am opposed, as it seems certain, they must have an injurious effect upon the publick morals. The means are within every man's reach of obtaining a prize, superiour to any reward of talents, or remuneration of many years industry. Many an apprentice is tempted to pilfer from his master's counter, many a chambermaid improves opportunities for stealing with impunity, and many a labourer cheats his family of their bread, to adventure upon the ocean of chance in hope of immense profit, which will render such practices unnecessary in future. All private lotteries are forbidden under heavy penalties, and if publick ones only render the evil of gaming more extensive, why are they allowed? It is the meanest way a legislature ever pursues of laying a tax. Hundreds of gambling houses are licensed in Paris and pay large gratuities to the corrupt government, that encourages them; thousands of the strumpets also are employed, as spies, and Talleyrand would never diminish their numbers or their utility. But I hope the perverse policy of France will never be adopted here.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

A taste for the belles lettres is rapidly spreading in our country. We have indeed few profound scholars in any branch of science; but, so far as it subserves the general amusement of life, so far as it enlivens conversation and lessens the *tædium vitæ*, reading is not less attended to in America, than in any other part of the world. I believe, that, fifty years ago, England had never seen a miscellany or a review, so well conducted, as our Anthology, however superiour such publications may now be in that kingdom. Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice was altered by George Granville, and called the Jew of Venice. The English nation tolerated this disgraceful substitution, till near the middle of the last century, and the prologue was spoken by the ghosts of Shakespeare and Dryden, who ascended from beneath the stage, crowned with laurel. The prologue-writer complimented the taste of the community by making the representative of the great dramatick bard speak thus :

These scenes in their rough native dress were mine ;
But now, improved, with nobler lustre shine.
The first rude sketches Shakespeare's pencil drew,
But all the shining master-strokes are new.
This play, ye criticks, shall your fury stand,
Adorn'd and rescued by a faultless hand.

COWPER is the most popular poet in our language. His favourable reception is owing to no adventitious circumstances, which frequently raise into general celebrity writers, that will never afterwards be remembered. His is the language of nature, delivered more faithfully, than were ever the responses of the oracle by the priestess of Delphos. "From grave to gay, from lively to severe," all are charmed with Cowper. Yet he indulges in no personal satire, and why does he please the censorious? He despises the artifices of fashion, and why is he the favourite of the dissipated, and the thoughtless? No one, of any mental refinement, is so corrupt, so remote from the simplicity of reason and of truth, as not to peruse the Task with delight. His moral lectures are received without jealousy, and obeyed without repugnance. Though only called "to dress a sofa with the flowers of verse," he has happily deviated to adorn every subject of general interest. It is a perpetual episode. His wit is often epigrammatick, like that of Young, without his severity. The reflections, with which he concludes the description of the immense palace of ice, built by the empress of Russia, I have heard cited by a lady, as a fine instance of simplicity, though glowing with antitheses.

Alas ! 'twas but a mortifying stroke
Of undesign'd severity, that glanc'd
(Made by a monarch) on her own estate,
On human grandeur and the courts of kings.
'Twas transient in its nature, as in show
'Twas durable ; as worthless, as it seem'd
Intrinsically precious ; to the foot
Treacherous and false ; *it smil'd, and it was cold.*

Cowper's version of Homer will only serve as a beacon to warn future adventurers. It can only be read by those, who, acquainted with the original, wish to observe, how, in transfusing every thing with exactness from the ancients, nothing will be gained by the moderns. The effulgence of the Grecian bard, "dark with excessive bright," overpowered the mortal vision of Cowper. He offers us only the inanimate skeleton, the bones and the muscles of Homer, in their terrifick nakedness, and for this we were to surrender the breathing image from the hands of Pope, arrayed in his appropriate robes, and glowing with the *lumen purpureum* of eternal youth.

To the Editors of the Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

Having lately examined the ancient laws of this State, relative to the constitution and rights of churches in the town of Boston, and reduced them into a digest, I submit it to you for insertion, provided you shall not deem it incompatible with the object of your useful miscellany. ANTIQUARIUS.

THE RIGHTS OF PROTESTANT CHURCHES IN THE TOWN OF BOSTON.

TO constitute a body corporate, it is not necessary that there should be a formal act of incorporation. For if any body of men are, by the supreme authority of the state, recognized as such, it will be a virtual act of incorporation. In the early settlement of this commonwealth, so unrefined were the inhabitants in their legal notions, that districts were constituted and invested with municipal rights by a single order of the governour and assistants of the colony, that they should be called by certain names. There is no other act of incorporation for the towns of Boston, Salem, Ipswich, and most others in the commonwealth. In considering the rights of the churches in Boston, we shall have occasion to notice the above principle, as none of them have, until very lately, been incorporated into distinct religious communities by special acts of the government.

The congregations in Boston are invested with rights and immunities, which have descended entire through successive generations. Now where a body of men do possess certain rights, which they can, under a general name and in their united capacity, legally maintain, which rights have descended to them, but will not die with them; they are corporations, "maintaining a perpetual succession and enjoying a kind of legal immortality." As for the origin of these communities, they may claim corporate rights both from *prescription* and by *implication* from acts of the colony, province, and commonwealth. They have names, by which they are distinguished from each other, they may raise monies, they may sue and be sued, and they may do all legal acts, which may be done by other artificial persons.

In these communities there are several distinct corporate bodies, each known in law, and having its peculiar rights and duties; viz. 1. The Church. 2. The Minister. 3. The Deacons, and, in episcopal churches, Church Wardens. And 4. the Proprietors of Pews.

1. The Church. By a law of the colony,* passed in 1641, it is declared, that "all the people of God within the jurisdiction, who are not in a church way, and be orthodox in judgment, and not scandalous in life, shall have liberty to gather themselves into a church estate, provided they do it in a christian way." But it adds, "that the General Court will not approve of any such companies of men, as shall join in any pretended way of church-fellowship, unless they shall acquaint three or more magistrates dwelling next, and the elders of the neighbour churches, where they intend to join, and have their approbation therein." In the same law it is enacted,

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* Laws and Liberties of the Colony of Massachusetts, 43.

“that every church hath free liberty of election and ordination of all her officers from time to time, provided they be able, pious, and orthodox. By the expression “the church,” is here meant, according to a definition thereof contained in a law passed in 1660,* such as are in full communion only.” The teaching officer is intended, “the minister to all the people where the church is planted.” All inhabitants, who were not in full communion, were excluded from any right in the choice, and if any one such should presume to act therein, he was accounted a disturber of the peace, and might be punished by the court of the shire, by admonition, security for good behaviour, fine, or imprisonment, according to the aggravation of the offence. The church is invested with liberty to admit, recommend, dismiss, expel, or dispose of its officers and members for due cause: to assemble when it pleases, and to exercise all the ordinances of God, according to the scriptures: to deal with its members, who are in the hands of justice, but not to retard its course: and even with the civil magistrate, “in case of apparent and just offence given in his place,” but not to degrade him from his office or dignity in the commonwealth.

The government of the colony consisted, in those early periods, of a spiritual and a temporal power. It was usual to consult with the elders of the churches in affairs of a civil nature,† relating to the institution of laws, and the conduct of publick affairs. And in 1642, it was ordered, that the publick treasurer should defray the charges of the elders, when they were employed by the order of the General Court. It is to this circumstance, that we must attribute the incorporating of so many of the provisions of the Levitical law into the jurisprudence of the early period of the state.

In the choice of the ministers, the church were originally the sole electors; but for more than a century past, it has been an established rule in the town of Boston, and in the other towns of the commonwealth, that all who contribute to their support, shall have a voice in their election. By a law passed in the 4 and 5 of W. and M.,‡ it is declared, that whenever a church is destitute of a minister, such church is invested with power to choose one. If the major part of such of the inhabitants, as usually attend publick worship, and are qualified by law to vote in town affairs,§ with whom likewise the members of the church may vote, shall concur with the act of the church, and the person elected shall accept thereof, he becomes the minister, to whose support all the inhabitants and rateable estates are obliged to contribute. In case of a disagreement between the church and the inhabitants, the former may call in the help of a council, consisting of the elders and messengers of three or five neighbouring churches. This council is empowered to hear, examine, and consider the exceptions and allegations made against the election of the churches.* If they should approve of the choice, and the person elected should declare his acceptance, he became the minister of the society to all intents,

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* Laws and Liberties, &c. p. 42.

† Ib. p. 44.

‡ Prov. Laws, p. 33.

§ Ib. p. 62.

* 7 W. III. Ib. p. 62.

and entitled to be supported by the parish. But the act of 4 and 5 of W. and M. which applies to the towns and parishes throughout the commonwealth, expressly provides, that it shall not "abridge the inhabitants of Boston of their accustomed way and practice as to the choice and maintenance of their ministers." Each society in this town should, when proceeding to choose a minister, ascertain and pursue the *ancient practice*, if it has followed any one mode in preference to another, from which it is presumed it would be illegal to depart, in respect of the rights, which, by the choice and acceptance, rest in the minister.

By a law of the province, passed 28 Geo. II. and re-enacted* in part by this commonwealth, Feb. 20. 1786, churches are constituted corporations to receive donations, to choose a committee to advise the deacons in the administration of their affairs, to call the church officers to an account, and, if need be, to commence and prosecute any suits touching the same.

2. The Minister. The ministers of the several protestant churches, of whatever denomination, are made capable of taking, in succession, any parsonage land or lands, granted to the minister and his successors, or to the use of the ministers, and of suing and defending all actions touching the same. But no alienation by them of such lands is valid any longer, than they shall continue to be ministers, unless it be with the consent of the town, district, or precinct, or, if such ministers are of the episcopal denomination, with the consent of the vestry.

3. Deacons and Church-Wardens. By the same act, the deacons of the congregational churches, and the church-wardens of the episcopal churches, are constituted corporations, including the minister, elders, or vestry, where they are named in the original grant, to take in succession all grants and donations, real or personal, made either to their several churches, the poor of their churches, or to them and their successors; and to sue and defend in all actions touching the same. But they cannot alienate any lands belonging to churches, without the consent of the church, or of the vestry, where the gift is to an episcopal church.

4. Proprietors of Pews. Prior to the year 1754, the several congregations in Boston could not, by law, raise money for the support of the ministry and publick worship among them.* It was therefore enacted by the same law, that the proprietors of the pews, or the persons to whom they are allotted in the houses of publick worship, may, at a publick meeting to be called for that purpose, cause the several pews in such houses to be valued according to the convenience of their situation; and new valuations to be made from time to time, as shall be found necessary, and impose a tax on each pew according to such valuation, provided it shall not exceed two shillings a week. The monies so raised must be applied to the support of the ministry, and other parochial charges. The proprietors are authorised to choose a clerk, treasurer, and likewise a collector of the assessments. Reference is made in this act to a committee of the proprietors, which may, therefore, be chosen at such meeting. These meetings are to be called by the proprietors' clerk, deacons,

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* Prov. Laws, 370. Mass. Laws, 282.

* Prov. Laws, 371.

or church-wardens, and notice immediately after divine service given ten days, at least, before the meeting. In the notice, the purpose for which the meeting is to be convened, must be specified.

If any owner of a pew should neglect for three months, after a demand made, to pay his assessment, his pew may be sold by the proprietors, who, after deducting from the proceeds, the debt and and costs, shall return the surplus to the owner, unless he shall tender the same to the proprietors, or to their committee, at the last valuation. In this case, if they refuse or neglect to accept the same, no sum shall be deducted out of the sale of the pew, but such only as became due prior to the tender.

The proprietors of the pews are owners of the soil on which the meeting-house stands, and are the rightful persons to sue and defend in all cases respecting the same, and likewise in all cases respecting the house.

Where the general laws of the commonwealth, relating to parishes, apply to the societies in Boston, they may avail themselves of them. Because they are general, and contain no exclusive expressions. Where those laws do not apply, they are not obligatory. Parishes in the country towns are in general separated from each other by boundary lines. Where in a town any district has been set off into a new parish, the remaining part is denominated the "first parish," and by an act, passed in the 4 Geo. I.* all country parishes are invested with the rights and immunities of bodies corporate, whether they constitute the original stock, or are branches from it.

This subject has been considered without reference to the law which was passed March 4, 1800,† providing for the publick worship of God, and repealing the laws heretofore made on the subject. The first section of that law confirms to churches, connected and associated in publick worship with towns, parishes, precincts, districts, and other bodies politick, being religious societies, established according to law within this commonwealth, all their accustomed privileges and liberties respecting divine worship, church-order, and discipline. It declares that contracts, made by these bodies with any publick teacher, shall have the same force, and be as obligatory on the contracting parties, as any other lawful contract, and be sustained in the courts of justice. It prescribes the mode, in which the monies, paid by the subject to the support of publick worship, shall be applied to the use of the teacher of his own denomination. It provides, that nothing in the act shall take from any church or religious society in Boston, or any other town, the right and liberty to support the publick worship of God, by a tax on pews, or other established mode. And lastly, it repeals all laws, providing for the settlement of ministers, and the support of publick worship, made prior to the adoption of our present constitution, except as to the recovery of fines which had accrued, and the fulfilment of contracts made under them. This act was probably drawn up by some one, who was not well acquainted with the ancient laws relative to the subject, for such construction must be given to this repealing clause, as will very much limit its operation. 1. The rights and privileges which had been vested in the several religious communities, still remain in them, by virtue of the first section of the law, which amounts to an act of confirmation. Therefore, the rights of the churches, to lead in the election of ministers, and of other officers, and to maintain order and discipline, where they have been accustomed to exercise and enjoy those rights, still remain in them. 2. The established mode in which the societies in Boston have supported publick worship, is likewise preserved, together with the rights of the several bodies politick, of which they are composed. If there is any thing in those old laws, as undoubtedly there is, which is repugnant to the provisions of this act, it is repealed. For it is a rule in the construction of a clause in a statute, that it is to be taken with the other parts of the statute, and to be restrained or enlarged by them, so as to give, if possible, that force and efficacy to the whole, which was intended by the legislature.

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* Prov. Laws, 198.

† Mass. Laws, 931. &c.

For the Anthology.

ACCOUNT OF WESTMINSTER-SCHOOL—OF ITS FOUNDATION, MASTERS, USHERS, PRESENT METHOD OF INSTRUCTION, EXPENSES OF EDUCATION, &c. &c.

The question of the superiority of private over publick education has of late been obtruded upon us in various shapes, till at length every one has been tired of attending to an argument which no discussion, however frequent, had advanced nearer to decision; and each determines it at present according to his own prejudices, or, if he has any children, by a wiser way, according to the disposition, or presumed capacity, of his own boy.

The two questions of most importance with those resolutely bent against the method of publick education seem to be, an apprehension for the morals of their children, and a dread of the enormity of the expense. Whatever relates to the former part of this question should be examined with coolness, and, as far as possible, be determined without leaving behind a shadow of doubt; what respects the latter, I hope to prove to the satisfaction of any impartial man as totally groundless: publick schools are not only less expensive than our present system of private education, but the remuneration to the masters from each boy is so small, that I am fearful lest some grains of contempt should adhere to them, for submitting to a drudgery so truly slavish, for rewards so comparatively inadequate.

That the provision for religious education at Westminster-school is far from what has been represented, is proved by the late learned and venerable master, under whom the writer of these present observations is proud to say he himself received his education. Facts, unquestionable facts, have been submitted to the publick, who have received and judged the question with such deliberate candour, that little encouragement has been given to any writer on the contrary side, since it seemed, as it really was, impossible to overturn what was advanced with such cogency of argument and strength of testimony.

As I presume it is the object of your Magazine to discuss all questions of general utility, that of education must necessarily force itself upon you with a kind of prescriptive claim: I shall, therefore, require of you to submit to your readers the following account of the most illustrious publick seminary in Great-Britain. I trust it will correct some errours into which many men of good intentions have fallen, and give them a complete idea of a system of education which their ancestors established, revered, and supported, for more than two centuries from the present age. The method of instruction is but in a few trifling particulars different from what it then was. We are compelled to a rigid observance of our statutes; and if we sometimes differ from the letter, the spirit is universally preserved.

I confess myself unable to trace the exact æra in which Westminster-school was founded; that in the antiquity of its origin it surpasses all other seminaries in G. Britain, is universally acknowledged; but as the precise year of its institution has puzzled many antiquaries, I may, at least, be allowed to avoid a question so dark and intricate. It has been thought coeval with the endowment of St. Peter's collegiate church, commonly called Westminster Abbey. This was originally a monastick institution, and is permitted, I believe, to claim for its first founder, William Rufus.

In the reign of Henry the Eighth, when the rich and overgrown monasteries presented a tempting bait to a king, equally covetous and profuse, the spoil of Westminster Abbey, among the rest, did not escape his rapacity. The time was now favourable for the utmost violence of innovation. The monks were held by the secular clergy in profound detestation; the laity had lost all respect both for them and their institutions, in the notorious profligacy of their characters, and the atrocious enormity of their vices. Henry had but this last and fatal blow to give to their patron at Rome, at once to tear up by the root the most stedfast hold of his authority in that kingdom, and complete his vengeance to the full. Most of them fell without a struggle, and with but ineffectual appeals for mercy. But to overthrow an establishment like that of Westminster Abbey, at once so opulent, so ancient, and so long esteemed sacred; which had to boast kings for its founders and benefactors, and in whose walls the ceremony of coronation had for centuries been performed, appeared so evidently hazardous, that the rapacity of the monarch for once yielded to the necessity of the case, and it was spared a total dissolution. On the surrender of the abbots and monks, the king converted it into a cathedral. It did not even long retain this form, since the see was dissolved by Edward the Sixth, and the college restored; and, on the accession of Mary, it again resumed the name of Westminster Abbey, with some small portion of its original endowments. It is, however, indebted to Elizabeth for its present institution. That princess founded a *college*, which is the proper name of the establishment, appointed a dean and twelve prebendaries, with numerous petty canons, and instituted a school for forty boys, who are called by the name of king's scholars, and two masters.

Dr. Henry, in his history of Great-Britain, has attributed the foundation of Westminster-school to Henry the Eighth, and certainly not with his usual accuracy. Ingulphus, the famous abbot of Crowland, who flourished in the time of Edward the Confessor, speaks of his being brought up at Westminster-school: this is indisputable authority of its antiquity. In the account, however, which I propose to give of this illustrious seminary, I do not intend losing myself in any antiquarian research, but to dwell with, I hope, a pardonable minuteness on the modern form of its institution, and the present established mode of its education. I shall therefore divide the matter of my consideration into five heads.—1. Of the masters.—2. Of those who are called the town boys.—3. Of the king's scholars.—4. Of the books read and the method of instruction.—5, and lastly, Of the vacations and expenses of education at this seminary.

This establishment has at present two masters and six ushers. They are supported partly by the funds of the school, and partly by what is paid by the *town-boys*, the king's scholars having their education, as far as respects any gratuity to the masters, free of all expense. I should first have premised, that, for distinction's sake, there is an upper and a lower school; there is no separation between them otherwise than a bar, which runs across the middle of a very large room, in which all the boys meet together. From this bar a curtain formerly depended, as the division between the two schools, but, at present, there is no other distinction than that of the forms. There are seven forms or classes: The lower school contains three; they are as follow: the first or petty, the second, and the two thirds, both making *one* form together. A form is divided into two parts, the under and upper parts; the boys remain six months in each. From the under part to the upper part of a form, the removal is of course; but, when a boy is to pass onward from a lower form to a higher, he is said to "*to stand out for his remove*," and is examined as to his sufficiency by the head master, in the books which have been read in the form he is about to leave. Every form has its usher, except the upper third in the lower school, where the under master presides, and the sixth and seventh in the upper school, which are under the superintendence of the head master. Every boy in the under school pays to the under master three guineas a year, two to the upper master, and a guinea to the usher of his form. Every boy in the upper school pays five guineas yearly to the upper master, and a guinea to the usher of his form; and, should he leave school in the sixth or seventh form, he presents the master with ten guineas, if a *town-boy*. A king's scholar, when *he* leaves, presents the same sum to the upper master, and half as much to the under master; but this is merely optional, though never omitted. From these sources the salaries of the two masters are derived, with what is appropriated to them by the funds of the establishment. They have both handsome houses belonging to their office, and are required to give their attendance in school every day in the week, Sunday excepted; but there is a whole holiday on every saint's day, and day of particular commemoration, and a half holiday every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. It must not, however, be hastily concluded, that the boys are consequently idle from these numerous holidays; the contrary is the case: they are burthened with a very heavy exercise on every half holiday, Tuesday excepted, which they are required to produce in the morning afterwards. And I can assure my reader, to escape *this* exercise, they would freely go without their *half holiday*. The hours, therefore, which many, inflamed with an ignorant rancour against publick schools, have supposed devoted to idleness and play, are, in reality, the most busy and instructive of any! The whole afternoon of the half holiday is spent in labouring the exercise for the next morning, which is first done in a *foul book*, and thence copied on a half sheet of paper, and presented to the usher, or master, before breakfast on the ensuing day. It is for want of examination that publick schools are accused of idleness. The ushers, as I have before said, are paid partly out of the funds, which are not, however, sufficient for their support; they have a guinea, therefore, yearly from every boy in the form to which they belong; and, as all the boarding houses must necessarily have an usher to keep peace and order among the boys, he obtains the same sum from each belonging to the house where he himself resides; and has besides many other ways of augmenting his salary. The ushers are generally clergymen, and all at present, I believe, are handsomely provided with church livings, or are fellows of Trinity College, Cambridge. They are men of extensive learning and high respectability, and, without lessening their authority, live on the most friendly terms with the boys.

2d. I come next to consider the *town boys*. I must define them by negatives. They are such as are not king's scholars, who are independent of the foundation, and who may be admitted or dismissed at the master's pleasure. They either belong to boarding-houses, or, if their friends reside near, live at their own homes, and then, except in school hours, are not subject to the jurisdiction of the masters or the ushers, which the boys who live in the boarding-houses are. In every respect these day boys have the same advantages of education with the rest, and may pass through the school, and obtain all its profits for the moderate sum of six guineas per annum! These boys are held in equal respectability with the others; there is no difference that I know of; and many of the opulent families who reside all the year in London, prefer sending their children in this manner.—Never after this let us hear of the expense of a publick school education in Great-Britain.

3. I now come to the *king's scholars*. This foundation is very different from that of any other school. They are forty in number, and are supplied by an annual election from the town boys. Thus every king's scholar must necessarily have been a town boy, though no town boy, unless chosen, can be a king's scholar. The foundation draws to itself, as a centre, all the talents, the industry, and respectability of the whole school. It is where every father wishes to see his son; where greater attention is paid both to their morals and learning, since the superintendence over them is necessarily more strict. It is where the sons of the first families in the kingdom have been educated; where a Busby trained up his scholars; whence Cowley, Dryden, Smith, Halifax, and all the illustrious men of that age issued, and whence most of

those of the *present* have imbibed the early seeds of education.

Interest forms no part of their introduction into the college. It is open to talents alone, and a fair competition *once* a year, takes place between the boys who are candidates for the foundation. They generally *stand out*, as it is termed, from the *fifth form*, and commence their competition about two months previous to the time, when the seniour boys on the foundation are preparing for their election to Oxford or to Cambridge. A great number contend for admission, and about eight, or more, according to the vacancies, are admitted. The king's scholars wear caps and gowns to distinguish them, are never above the age of fourteen when admitted ; they remain four years on the establishment, and then are either elected students of Christ Church, Oxford, or are chosen to Cambridge, where they mostly succeed to a fellowship. The king's scholars live in what is called the dormitory, but whether from caprice, pride, or I know not what, do not choose to receive all the profits of the foundation, but are content to dine in the college hall only, and have their other meals from the boarding-houses, of which they are termed *half-boarders*. Thus the education, as a king's scholar, is very little cheaper, though, on many accounts, much to be preferred. The dean and sub-dean of Christ Church attend once a-year, at Whitsuntide, to take their equal portion of the seniour candidates for election, as do likewise the master of Trinity, and some fellows. They have their choice alternately, but as it is esteemed more advantageous for the boys to be students of Christ Church, the Cambridge electors always wave their right of claim, and accept of those, whom the dean of Christ Church, who bestows the studentships, does not elect to his own college. The election to Oxford is always a mere matter of interest, superiority of talents is totally out of the question. But the boys who are studious and prudent, may improve the advantages of an election to Cambridge to an equal, and sometimes superiour profit.

4. I come now to my last consideration, the books read, and the method of instruction pursued throughout the school. I have already mentioned the division of the under school into three forms, one of which I shall call a *double form*, namely the *third*, it consisting of two distinct forms, and each being divided into an upper and lower part, as with the rest of the *single* forms.

In the petty or first form, are taught the rudiments of Latin grammar. In the second, the boys are taught to construe Æsop, Phædrus, and turn some *sacred exercises* into Latin.

In the under third, begins their first instruction in prosody. They here commence their verse exercise, a species of education, with some so much the subject of censure, with others of applause, in all our publick schools. The boys read Ovid's Tristia, and Metamorphoses ; Cornelius Nepos is their prose author. They turn the Psalms, and sacred exercises, into Latin verse, on Thursdays, and Saturdays, first beginning with what are called *nonsense verses*, and making them approach, as fast as they are able, to an union of sense and metre.

In the upper third, where the under master presides, the same course of discipline is, for the most part, pursued ; the exercises being only

only longer, and required to be more correct.

The upper school is divided into four forms; the fourth, the fifth, the shell, the sixth, or the upper part of it, which is called the seventh, generally filled by the seniour king's scholars. In the fourth, are read Virgil, Cæsar's Commentaries, and the Greek Testament, with the Greek grammar, not taught in any of the under forms. On Thursdays, the boys turn Martial's Epigrams into long and short verses, and on Saturdays, do a verse exercise from the Bible with the rest of the upper school. In the fifth, are read the same books, with the addition of the Greek epigrammatists, some part of Homer and Sallust. On Monday, a Latin theme, on Wednesday, an English one, or an abridgment from some prose author is read in the form; on Thursdays, they turn the odes of Horace into another metre, generally into hexameters and pentameters; on Saturdays, Bible-exercise throughout the school. In the shell, the same course is pursued, except, that the only Greek author read, is Homer. In the sixth and seventh, where the head master presides, the higher Greek and Latin authors are all read—such as Sophocles, Euripides, Demosthenes, sometimes Æschylus: Horace, Juvenal, Cicero, Livy, Sallust, &c. It would be tedious to run over all the books, and the different times when they are introduced; it will be sufficient to add, that a boy who has passed through the sixth form will find no difficulty in any Latin or Greek author whatever. Here the verse exercises are carried to the highest perfection, and a boy will produce, for his Saturday's Bible exercise, an alcaick ode, or thirty or forty, sometimes a hundred hexameter verses, of the most flowing melody, and frequently of no little poetical elevation. The Greek Testament is read in Easter week, and Grotius*, with copious comments by the master, to infuse proper religious sentiments, on every Monday morning.†

5. I now come to my last consideration. The vacations are three times a-year. Three weeks at Christmas, when the king's scholars perform one of Terence's plays; the same portion of time at Whitsuntide, and five weeks at Bartholomewtide. It must be confessed, there is here no waste of time; the boys being, moreover, employed in long repetitions, and holiday tasks, during the vacation. The expenses of the boarding-houses are generally from thirty to thirty-five guineas per annum, and the utmost sum paid to the masters is seven guineas.

I will now venture to assert, that no man can educate his son at a private school in so moderate a manner, particularly if he be sent to Westminster as a *day-scholar*. I have now made mention of all that occurs to me. I should certainly, however, not have resisted this opportunity of dwelling on the strict and most exemplary mode of religious education pursued at Westminster, but that I can refer my readers to a much better account of it in the late Vindication of the Dean of Westminster. T. L.

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* Grotius merely serves as a peg. The master takes this opportunity of discussing the fundamental doctrines of Christianity, and well-grounding the boys in them.

† The upper boys, in their turns, speak publickly in the school on every Friday, sometimes in Latin, often in Greek, more frequently from the English poets.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

For the Monthly Anthology.

MONODY,

TO THE MEMORY OF GEN. HENRY KNOX.

With all of nature's gift, and fortune's claim,
A soul of honour, and a life of fame,
A warrior-chief, in victory's field renown'd,
A statesman, with the wreath of virtue crown'd.
Such, Knox, wert thou....shall truth's immortal strain
Recal thy deeds, and plead their worth in vain?
Sacred and sainted 'mid yon starry sky,
In vain shall friendship breathe her holiest sigh.
Where is that pity known thy life to share,
Softening the beams by glory blazoned there?
Lost like thy form, with that unconscious grown,
Of all thy living virtues called their own!
Ne'er shall that smile its speaking charm impart
To win the angered passions from the heart;
No more that voice, like musick, seem to flow,
Kind in its carings for another's woe,
But round thy tomb despair will live to weep,
Cold as the cearments of thy marble sleep.

Yet wert thou blest. Ere age with chill delay
Quenched of the fervid mind its sacred ray,
Fate called thee hence....Nor nature's late decline
Saw thy full-lustred fame forbear to shine;
Called thee with many a patriot earth-approved,
With heroes by the Queen of Empires loved:
While on that world of waters victory gave,
Immortal *Nelson* gained a glorious grave;
When Pitt, the soul of Albion, reached the skies,
And saw the rival of his genius rise,
Fox, loved of fame...a nation's guide and boast,
His voice sublime mid wondering plaudits lost.
These, like thyself, for godlike deeds admired,
In the green autumn of their years retired.
Hence shall their kindred spirits blend with thine,
And mingling, in collected radiance shine.
Honoured in life, in death to memory dear,
Not hopeless falls the tributary tear.
For what is death but life's beginning hour,
The good man's glory, and the poor man's power;
Banquet of every bliss we taste below,
Source of the hope we feel, the truth we know.
Then not for thee, *mild shade*, the grief be given;
For thee, beloved on earth, approved in heaven,
All that thy life revered thy death supplies,
To live with Angels, and in God to rise.

December, 1806.

For the Monthly Anthology.

ERIN.

Behind the misty brow of yonder hill,
Beside a stream that turns the village mill,
Remote from worldly care and courtly strife,
Once honest Erin led a peaceful life.
Brisk as the bee that sucks the fragrant dew,
He hied afield the stubborn oak to hew;
Or, when rough winter left the leafless bower,
And smiling spring came on in sunny shower;
Jocund he drove the patient ox to toil,
And broke with lagging plough the loosen'd soil.
Oft the lone beat of yonder chapel bell,
That toll'd for frosty age the passing knell,
Allur'd the ruddy swain, with moisten'd brow,
To taste the luncheon spread on wheaten mow.
And when behind the hills the sun withdrew,
And noisy swallows to their lodging flew,
Before his cot, or near some rushy stream,
That faintly twinkled 'neath the silver gleam,
While perfum'd breezes in the tree-tops plays,
Fanning the air as weary light decay'd;
With merry reed he made the rustick gay,
Returning home at close of busy day.
But hush'd the strain that gladden'd all the plain
And cheer'd with simple notes the homeward swain;
For now away beneath yon scraggy thorn,
Where nightly sits the bird of eve forlorn,
And tall weeds wave, as sighs the hollow gale,
And gently swells the green sod in the dale,
Releas'd from all this little world's alarms,
He sleeps secure in death's oblivious arms.

Blest was his toil with crops of golden grain,
And Erin grew in wealth, and rose in name.
But, ah, that pleasing rest, which wealth imparts,
Too oft unnerves the frame, unmans our hearts.
So far'd it now with late our honest clown;
In ease repos'd he thoughtless sought the town,
And loitering day by day, a prey to harm,
He left unplough'd the field, unsown the farm.
The moments flew. His happy days were gone,
Swift as the beam that scales the saffron morn;
And now gloom'd round, with chilling frost combin'd,
Cold want, that ragged rustled in the wind.

The storm blew bleak, and drifting fast the snow,
When Erin left the vale opprest with wo;
Remorse with rankling tooth his bosom tore,
And wild with grief he saw his home no more.

Dec. 20, 1806.

To the Editors of the Monthly Anthology.

GENTLEMEN,

The following Poem was presented to me by a literary female friend at Liverpool, with an assurance it was copied from the manuscript of Walter Scott.

G.

HELVELLYN.

In the spring of 1805, *a young gentleman of talents, and a most amiable disposition, perished, by losing his way, on the mountain Helvellyn ; the remains were not discovered until three months afterwards, when they were found guarded by a faithful terrier, his constant attendant during frequent solitary rambles through the wilds of Cumberland and Westmoreland.*

I CLIMB'D the dark brow of the mighty Helvellyn,
Lakes and mountains beneath me gleam'd misty and wide ;
All was still....save, by fits, when the eagle was yelling—
And starting around me, the echoes replied.
On the left striden edge round the red tarn was bending,
And Catchediceim its right verge was defending,
And one huge nameless rock in the front was ascending,
When I mark'd the sad spot where the wanderer died.

Dark green was that spot 'mid the brown mountain's heather,
Where the pilgrim of nature lay stretch'd in decay ;
Like the corpse of an outcast, abandon'd to weather,
'Till the mountain winds wasted the tenantless clay.
Nor yet quite deserted, though lonely extended,
For, faithful in death, his mute favourite attended,
The much lov'd remains of his master defended,
And chac'd the hill fox and the ravens away.

How long didst thou think that his silence was slumber ?
When the wind wav'd his garments, how oft didst thou start ?
How many long days and long nights didst thou number,
Ere he faded before thee....the friend of thy heart ?
And ah ! was it meet that, no requiem read o'er him,
No mother to weep, and no friend to deplore him,
And thou, little guardian, close stretched before him,
Unhonour'd, the pilgrim from life should depart ?

When a prince to the fate of a peasant has yielded,
The tapestry waves dark round the dim-lighted hall,
With scutcheons of silver the coffin is shielded,
And pages stand mute in the canopied hall.
Through the vault at deep midnight the torches are gleaming,
In the proudly arch'd chapel the banners are beaming,
Far adown the long aisle sacred musick is streaming,
Lamenting a chief of the people should fall.

But meeter for thee, gentle lover of nature,
To lay down thy head like the meek mountain lamb,

When wilder'd he drops from some cliff huge in stature,
And draws his last sob by the side of his dam:
And more stately thy couch by this desart lake lying,
Thy obsequies sung by the grey plover flying,
With but one faithful friend to witness thy dying
In the arms of Helvellyn and Catchedicciun.

For the Anthology.

NEW-YEAR'S ADDRESS

OF

THE CARRIER OF THE ANTHOLOGY.

Hunc..........diem numera meliore lapillo,
Qui tibi labentes apponit candidus annos;
Funde merum genio..........................Pers. Sat. 2d.

List to a simple lad! no heir of fame,
Who boasts no greater than a "carrier's" name;
Who ne'er had share in swelling Faction's roar,
Nor party rancour on his shoulders bore.

He scorns to tell of toils he never knew,
Storms that ne'er rose, and winds that never blew;
How oft for you, o'er Alps of snow he went,
His breeches tatter'd, and his breath quite spent.
One truth in boards is better, sure, by half,
Than twenty lies, tho' gilt and bound in calf.

Once more old time revolves his iron sphere,
And wonted pastimes hail the new-born year.
On whitest wings the merry moments fly,
Mirth laughs aloud, and grief forgets to sigh;

Now little masters *swell* themselves to men,
And miss, indulg'd, sits up till half past ten.——
When pale face paupers are securely bold;
When beggars wish, and wishes turn to gold;
When wretches ask, who never ask'd before,
And those, who always ask'd now ask the more;
When even Harpax smiles——upon his wealth,
And *thro' his window* drinks his neighbour's health,
Shall a poor boy, alone, of all the train,
Without one single *glitt'ring* joy remain?
Say, if a learned sermon please you well,
Will you not think of him who rang the bell?
When the musician's skilful fingers fly,
And chain your ears in "organ melody,"
Shall no kind thoughts within your bosom glow,
For the poor boy who did the bellows blow?

What? will a land of *learned Merchants* see
Their muse's carrier pine in poverty?

Ne'er shall it be, while tradesmen criticise,
Or ******** quotes Damberger's lies;
Ne'er shall it be, while rich men safely sail,
Or clatt'ring Bozzy hangs at Johnson's tail.

Unlock your hearts, and may your kindness seem
To flow, like *circles* in a *silver stream*,
Still, still *diverge*, and may these *circles* find
Their common centre in a gen'rous mind.
Thrice happy day! may all its pleasures last,
And years to come be happy as the past.
Boston, *Jan.* 1, 1807.

SELECTIONS.

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From the "WANDERER IN SWITZERLAND."

By James Montgomery.

THE LYRE.

"Ah! who would love the lyre!"
G. A. STEVENS.

WHERE the roving rill meander'd
Down the green, retiring vale,
Poor, forlorn ALCÆUS wander'd,
Pale with thought, serenely pale:
Hopeless sorrow, o'er his face
Breathed a melancholy grace,
And fix'd on every feature there
The mournful resignation of despair.

O'er his arm, his lyre neglected,
Coldly, carelessly he flung;
And, in spirit deep dejected,
Thus the pensive poet sung;
While, at midnight's solemn noon,
Sweetly shone the cloudless moon,
And all the stars, around his head,
Benignly bright, their mildest influence shed.

"Lyre! O, Lyre! my chosen treasure,
"Solace of my bleeding heart;
"Lyre! O, Lyre! my only pleasure,
"We must ever, ever part:
"'Tis in vain thy poet sings,
"Woos in vain thine heavenly strings,
"The Muse's wretched sons are born
"To cold neglect, and penury, and scorn.

"That which Alexander sigh'd for,
"That which Cæsar's soul possess'd,
"That which Heroes, Kings have died for,
"Glory!—animates my breast:
"Hark! the charging trumpets throats
"Pour their death-defying notes;
"To arms!" they call; to arms I fly,
"Like Wolfe to conquer—and like Wolfe to die!

"Soft!—the blood of murder'd legions
"Summons vengeance from the skies;
"Flaming towns, and ravag'd regions,
"All in awful judgment rise!
—"O then, innocently brave,
"I will wrestle with the wave;
"Lo! Commerce spreads the daring sail,
"And yokes her naval chariots to the gale.

"Blow ye breezes!—gently blowing,
"Waft me to that happy shore,
"Where, from fountains ever flowing,
"Indian realms their treasures pour;

" Thence returning, poor in health,
" Rich in honesty and wealth,
" O'er thee, my dear paternal soil !
" I'll strew the golden harvest of my toil.

"Then shall Misery's sons and daughters
" In their lowly dwellings sing ;
—" Bounteous as the Nile's dark waters,
" Undiscover'd as their spring,
" I will scatter, o'er the land,
" Blessings with a secret hand ;
—" For such angelick tasks design'd,
" I give the Lyre and sorrow to the wind."

On an oak, whose branches hoary
Sigh'd to every passing breeze,
Sigh'd, and told the simple story
Of the patriarch of trees ;
High in air his harp he hung,
Now no more to rapture strung ;
Then warm in hope, no longer pale,
He blush'd adieu, and rambled down the vale.

Lightly touch'd by fairy fingers,
Hark !—the Lyre enchants the wind ;
Fond Alcæus listens, lingers,—
Lingering, listening, looks behind.
Now the musick mounts on high,
Sweetly swelling through the sky ;
To every tone, with tender heat,
His heart-strings vibrate, and his pulses beat.

Now the strains to silence stealing,
Soft in ecstacies expire ;
Oh ! with what romantick feeling
Poor Alcæus grasps the lyre !
Lo ! his furious hand he flings,
In a tempest o'er the strings ;
He strikes the chords so quick, so loud,
'Tis Jove that scatters lightning from a cloud !

" Lyre ! O, Lyre ! my chosen treasure,
" Solace of my bleeding heart ;
" Lyre ! O, Lyre ! my only pleasure,
—" We will never, never part !
" Glory, Commerce, now in vain,
" Tempt me to the field, the main ;
" The Muse's Sons are blest, though born
" To cold neglect, and penury, and scorn.

" What, though all the world neglect me,
" Shall my haughty soul repine ?
" And shall poverty deject me,
" While this hallow'd lyre is mine ?
" Heaven—that o'er my helpless head,
" Many a wrathful vial shed,
—" Heaven gave this lyre !—and thus decreed,
" Be thou a *bruised*, but not a *broken* reed !"

THE GRAVE.

THERE is a calm for those who weep,
A rest for weary Pilgrims found,
They softly lie and sweetly sleep,
Low in the ground.

The storm that wrecks the winter sky,
No more disturbs their deep repose,
Than summer evening's latest sigh,
That shuts the rose.

I long to lay this painful head
And aching heart beneath the soil,
To slumber in that dreamless bed
From all my toil.

For Misery stole me at my birth,
And cast me helpless on the wild ;
I perish ;——O my mother Earth ?
Take home thy Child !

On thy dear lap these limbs reclined
Shall gently moulder into thee ;
Nor leave one wretched trace behind,
Resembling me.

Hark !—a strange sound affrights mine ear ;
My pulse,—my brain runs wild,—I rave :
—Ah ! who art thou whose voice I hear ?
—" I am THE GRAVE !

" The GRAVE, that never spake before,
Hath found at length a tongue to chide :
O listen !—I will speak no more :
Be silent, Pride !

" Art thou a WRETCH, of hope forlorn,
The victim of consuming care ?
Is thy distracted conscience torn
By fell despair ?

" Do foul misdeeds of former times
Wring with remorse thy guilty breast,
And Ghosts of unforgiven crimes
Murder thy rest ?

" Lash'd by the furies of the mind,
From wrath and vengeance wouldst thou flee ?
Ah ! think not, hope not, Fool ! to find
A friend in me.

" By all the terrours of the tomb,
Beyond the power of tongue to tell !
By the dread secrets of my womb !
By Death and Hell !

" I charge thee LIVE !—repent and pray ;
In dust thine infamy deplore ;
There yet is mercy ;——go thy way,
And sin no more.

" Art thou a MOURNER ?—Hast thou known
The joy of innocent delights ?
Endearing days forever flown,
And tranquil nights ?

" O LIVE !——and deeply cherish still
The sweet remembrance of the past :
Rely on Heaven's unchanging will
For peace at last.

" Art thou a WANDERER ?—Hast thou seen
O'erwhelming tempests drown thy bark ?
A shipwreck'd Sufferer hast thou been,
Misfortune's mark ?

" Though long of winds and waves the sport,
Condemn'd in wretchedness to roam,
LIVE !—thou shalt reach a sheltering port,
A quiet home.

" To FRIENDSHIP didst thou trust thy fame,
And was thy friend a deadly foe,
Who stole into thy breast to aim
A surer blow ?

" LIVE !—and repine not o'er his loss,
A loss unworthy to be told :
Thou hast mistaken sordid dross
For Friendship's gold.

" Go, seek that treasure, seldom found,
Of power the fiercest griefs to calm,
And soothe the bosom's deepest wound
With heavenly balm.

" In WOMAN hast thou placed thy bliss,
And did the Fair One faithless prove ?
Hath she betray'd thee with a kiss,
And sold thy love ?

" LIVE !—'twas a false bewildering fire,
Too often Love's insidious dart
Thrills the fond soul with sweet desire,
But kills the heart.

" A nobler flame shall warm thy breast,
A brighter Maiden's virtuous charms ;
Blest shalt thou be, supremely blest,
In Beauty's arms.

" ——Whate'er thy lot,——Whoe'er thou be,—
Confess thy folly,—kiss the rod,
And in thy chastening sorrows see
The hand of GOD.

" A bruised reed he will not break,
Afflictions all his children feel ;
He wounds them for his mercy's sake,
He wounds to heal !

" Humbled beneath his mighty hand,
Prostrate his Providence adore ;
'Tis done !—Arise ! HE bids thee stand,
To fall no more.

" Now, Traveller in the vale of tears !
To realms of everlasting light,
Through Time's dark wilderness of years,
Pursue thy flight.

" There IS a calm for those who weep,
A rest for weary Pilgrims found ;
And while the mouldering ashes sleep,
Low in the ground ;

" The Soul, of origin divine,
GOD's glorious image, freed from clay,
In heaven's eternal sphere shall shine,
A star of day !

" The SUN is but a spark of fire,
A transient meteor in the sky ;
The SOUL, immortal as its Sire,
SHALL NEVER DIE."

THE BOSTON REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere vero assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.——PLINY.

ARTICLE 65.

Travels in Louisiana and the Floridas in the year 1802, *giving a correct picture of those countries. Translated from the French, with notes, &c. by John Davis.*

Aspice et extremis domitum cultoribus orbem,
Eaosque domos Arabum, pictosque Gelonos;
Divisæ arboribus patriæ. VIRG.

New-York, Riley & Co. 12*mo.* *pp.* 181. 1806.

THE immense price, we have already paid for a part of the country, described in this book, and the value, attached to the rest both by its owners and by our government, renders every account of it interesting in a higher degree, than other travels. The knowledge of the author might have been acquired by a two-months' residence at New-Orleans; but there are few men of education and leisure, who are desirous of a pilgrimage into that region, so little known to its possessors, and we must, therefore, acquiesce many years in the relations of men, who enjoy few opportunities for inquiry, and exhibit little minuteness of investigation. The author was, as is conjectured by his translator, a planter of St. Domingo, driven by the blacks to seek a refuge on the continent, with any part of which he seems better pleased, than with Louisiana. In the title-page we are informed that the work is an account of travels in 1802; yet in the first sentence of the first chapter the writer tells us he has dwelt two years and a half in the colony. The Frenchman considers Louisiana and West-Florida as one colony, but he was never a surveyor of boundaries, and politicians must look elsewhere for the demarkation of our sovereignty. We learn only, that on the west we are bounded by 'New-Mexico, and vast countries unexplored.' The President of the United States, in a message to Congress, says, that Spain would confine our territory to a narrow strip of land on the west bank of the Mississippi; but, as we have long since sent a company across the continent, even to the Pacifick Ocean, it is presumable, that our government lays claim to all that tract, traversed by Capts. Lewis and Clarke. Yet it seems matter of very little concern in this quarter, whether our rights extend fifty or fifteen hundred leagues beyond the Mississippi. But the translator, in one of his notes, attempts to raise a doubt, where we had thought ourselves most secure.

'It is a matter of mirth, what erroneous notions the world has relative to the cession of Louisiana to the United States. A thousand people imagine at this moment that New-Orleans belongs to us; whereas New-Orleans still belongs to his Catholic Majesty the King of Spain; it is comprehended in the tract reserved by him.' P.166.

But, however ignorant of the extent of our domain, we are willing to learn its value.

'If we take into consideration the whole extent of the tract, comprehended in the boundaries that have been just exhibited, the colony, under that point of view, includes an immense territory. But appreciating things by their real value, and considering the country in another point of view, both with regard to the nature of its soil and other local circumstances, without including Upper Louisiana, which begins at the thirty-first degree of latitude, and extends to the north and the east, an immense territory, wild and uncultivated, with a few partial exceptions, I am disposed to believe that this part of the colony, composed of Lower Louisiana and West Florida, situated at the thirtieth and thirty-first degrees of north latitude, and at the sixty-eighth or sixty-ninth degree of east longitude, from the meridian of Ferrol, where the principal settlements of the colony are established; this immense tract, I insist, comprehending a space of four thousand leagues, affords only five hundred square leagues of land adapted to the purposes of agriculture: of these too, seventy-five are upon the banks of the Mississippi, a hundred and twenty-five in the interiour of the country, and three hundred in the tract bounded by the Atacapas and the Apelousas; from which the inference is manifest, that only the eighth part of this vast country can be appropriated to the labours and residence of man, the remainder being covered with lakes, forests, and swamps, and dry and sandy deserts.' *P. 4.*

In the second chapter we learn, —'The Mississippi, which divides the colony, and whose real name, in the language of the aborigines of the country, is *Messachipi*, which signifies the *Father of Waters*, is one of the most considerable rivers in America.' *P. 7.*

Of the impediments to navigation, the rapidity of the current, the variation of the channel, and the bar at the mouth, we have all the information, we can desire.

The 3d chapter is chiefly occupied by a minute description of the city and island of New-Orleans. Was it ever thought, that, in the hands of Spaniards, that city would have been a difficult conquest? The President of the United States talked of the rashness of attacking a place, whose walls were covered with cannon. But the traveller contemptuously asks, 'Must I make mention of Fort St. Charles, and its pretended ramparts? It would provoke the risibility of an engineer.'

'Such is New-Orleans at the present era. It deserves rather the name of a great straggling town, than of a city; though, even to merit that title, it would be required to be longer. In fact, the mind can, I think, scarcely image to itself a more disagreeable place on the face of the whole globe; it is disgusting in whatever point of view it be contemplated, both as a whole, separately, and the wild, brutish aspect of its suburbs. Yet it is the only town in the whole colony, and, in the ardour of admiration, it is called by the inhabitants the capital, the city !' *P*.35.

We are, however, told, and we believe it, that it is destined by nature to become one of the principal cities in North America. In a note upon this subject the translator quotes from another work, published at Paris, a political estimate of the importance of New-Orleans.

'But the grand advantage, which flows to the American states from the possession of the Mississippi, is, that the door is open to Mexico, and the valuable mines and provinces of Spain are exposed to an easy invasion. The Spanish possessions lie on the west and south. The road to them is easy and direct. They are wholly defenceless. The frontier has neither forts, nor allies, nor subjects. To march over them is to conquer. A detachment of a few thousands would find faithful guides, practicable roads, and no opposition between the banks of the Mississippi and the gates of Mexico. The unhappy race, whom Spain has enslaved, are without arms and without spirit ; or their spirit would prompt them to befriend the invader. They would hail the Americans, as deliverers, and execrate the ministers of Spain, as tyrants.' *P*. 38.

The manners of the inhabitants are described in the 4th chapter, and the subject is continued in the next, where their inhumanity is contrasted with the conduct of the inhabitants of the United States. The animation of the writer is here exhausted, and he concludes...

'May this page, while it transmits with infamy to posterity the conduct of the Louisianians, be a lasting monument to the magnanimity of the inhabitants of the United States. Time ! scatter if thou wilt the rest of this volume to the winds of heaven, but let that be sacred, which records the generous spirit of Americans !' *P*.76.

On slavery, we observe an appearance of argument to support the proposition, dearest to his heart.

'Negroes are a species of beings, whom nature seems to have intended for slavery ; their pliancy of temper, patience under injury, and innate passiveness, all concur to justify this position ; unlike the savages or aborigines of America, who could never be brought to servile control.' *P*.82.

A little further he declares, 'as the ox resigns himself to his yoke, so the negro bends to his burden.' The question is at last settled, with perfect satisfaction and self-complacency, by the resistless power of general axioms :

'Nature may be modified, but cannot be essentially changed. It is not possible to impart to the dog the habits of the wolf, nor to the ape those of the sheep. This position cannot be refuted. Sophistry may for a while delude, but the mind reposes upon the stability of truth.' *P*. 84.

Against a philosopher, in such impenetrable armour, who shall contend ? The regulations of the slaves, published by the best governour, that Spain ever sent to Louisiana, are introduced in a note. Among these one seems to render even the single privilege of the negroes nugatory. It declares, '. Slaves may not sell any thing without the permission of their master, not even the productions of the waste lands allowed them.' Surely *their tender mercies are cruelty.*

From the remainder of the volume, which treats of the tribes of Indians, of the diseases, of the animals, of the principal settlements, of the population, commerce, and government of the country, we need not extract any thing, as these circumstances have become of little consequence to us by the cession of the country to our government, or they may be found at greater length in the publick state papers since that event.

On the whole, this volume affords a great fund of information of that kind, which we most wanted, a complete character of the new subjects of our government. There is, also, a part, that may be serviceable to the mere merchant, and much of the characteristick levity of thought, united with violence of language, that will please every one.

ART. 66.

Biographical Memoirs of Lord Viscount Nelson, with observations critical and explanatory. "Sparsa coegi." By John Charnock, Esq. F. S. A. author of the Biographia Navalis, and the History of Marine Architecture, &c. &c. Second American edition. Boston, published by Etheridge & Bliss. 1806. T. M. Pomroy, printer, Northampton. *8vo.*

This publication is merely a narrative of Lord Nelson's victories, diligently collected and compiled from the various official statements. It is a work, that must be ever particularly interesting to Englishmen, as it comprises a history of their greatest naval engagements, and the most important anecdotes of their greatest naval hero, whose name will descend in glory to the latest posterity of Britain.

The original part of Mr. Charnock's labours in this production (the only part, perhaps, which can be justly considered amenable to criticism) is very limited; the events themselves having been previously related, and their arrangement following the order of time. This, however, is not so dignified, as might have been expected in the execution of such a task. His style is indigent; his collocation oftentimes impure. In many instances he obviously evinces a disposition to give importance to trifles, which tends rather to lessen, than augment the splendour of his subject.

We can say little only in praise of the "observations" in these memoirs, and it would be unjust to judge them with all the *rigour* of criticism, since the author himself 'claims nothing but the merit of a faithful collector and reporter of that authentick information, which before was widely scattered under the publick eye.' His only design is, 'by this miniature representation of Lord Nelson, to correct the defects and mistakes of such miserable sketches as have already appeared, and to furnish an outline to those, who may in future be inclined to amplify on a subject, which affords such boundless space.' In conclusion he assures the reader, that if 'a work of this kind should not be undertaken by any one else, he may, at some future time, produce his best endeavours to such effect; to which he intends devoting all the leisure hours, which indisposition and private concerns may leave him.'

In the performance of such a plan, should Mr. Charnock retain his resolution, we wish much success. The Life of Lord Viscount Nelson, executed by a man of talents and information, would doubtless be a work of no inconsiderable value. The history of the age, in which he lived, will be as much the subject of admiration with posterity, as perhaps any period, which can be contemplated in the retrospect of time. He will be recorded amongst the chief opposers of the torrent, which threatened to deluge the continent of Europe and the world, and that infatuated ambition, which, regardless of every tie, sacrifices to its gratification the dearest pledges of national honour and national tranquillity,

> .... "hated through the coast
> Of *Palestine, in Gath*, and Ascalon,
> And Accaron, and Gaza's frontier-
> bounds."

The task of biography is laborious and difficult; for, as it is the most entertaining kind of history, in which truth may be embellished with the painting of romance; so it is the most arduous successfully to perform. Biography should be written with the pen of the poet in the hand of the historian. But at present as little ceremony is used in this species of composition, as that in filling up the blank parts of a *mittimus*. The writer seizes on the most important actions of the *subject*, taken from the nearest source; he rivets them together with *observations critical and explanatory*; and, in a week, produces a chain of three hundred folio links!—It would be an excellent *amendment*, if the High Court of Criticism could issue a DE LIBRO INSPICIENDO, previous to the author's delivery at the press.

The prosperity of *bibliothick commerce* is oftentimes fatal to the best interests of literature. The chief agents in this lucrative profession watch the demise of a great man with all the vigilance of his *undertakers*; and generally advertise *memoirs*, *sketches*, and *annals* of his life on the day, in which his funeral ceremony is to be performed.

ART. 67.

The complete Justice of the Peace; containing extracts from Burn's Justice, and other justiciary productions. The whole altered and made conformable to the laws and manners of administering justice, particularly in the state of New-Hampshire, and generally in the other of the United States; comprising the practice, authority, and duty of justices of the peace, with forms and precedents relating thereto. By a gentleman of the profession. Printed and published according to act of congress. C. Peirce, Portsmouth, and S. Bragg, jun. Dover, N. H. 8*vo.* $2,50. *Nov.* 1806.

THIS work is printed on very good paper, with a clear type, and appears in the common law binding. It seems to have been originally intended by the compiler as an abridgement of *Burn's Justice*; but the sessions, for which that work was more particularly calculated, being abolished, made every thing in *Burn*, excepting the forms, of little use. It contains, however, the greater part of that author's treatise on *arbitrament*. In the arrangement of the matter the compiler has generally followed Dalton, and the substance of the forms, as far as they were applicable, is from Burn.

Little can be said of a compilation of this nature from works already established in their reputation, but on the shape and manner in which they are again made to appear. Of this we have already spoken, and can only add, that it is a convenient book of reference, particularly to gentlemen of the profession in the state of New-Hampshire, to whom it is dedicated, and for whose use it has been more particularly compiled.

ART. 68.

An Inquiry into the present state of the foreign relations of the Union, as affected by the late measures of administration. S. F. Bradford, Philadelphia; Brisban & Brannan, New York; Wm. Andrews, Boston. *pp.* 184. *8vo.*

THIS is a pamphlet of 180 pages. Its bulk would have deterred us from reading it, if it had not been our duty to perform the task, in order to give our readers some information of its contents. Many have not the leisure, and few will have the desire, to read a great book. A political writer should consider how little our "enlightened" countrymen read, except newspapers, and that consideration should induce him, when he composes a pamphlet, to study brevity.

Besides a dedication to the American people, and an introduction, which might both have been expunged by the author without any essential injury to his book, the first forty pages contain a great many general observations, which we venture to think could have been, and ought to have been, greatly condensed. They exhibit, no doubt, many important views of our political situation, but we could wish they had been omitted or abridged, because a good pamphlet is the better for being short. The declamatory style in which the writer has, we confess, too much indulged himself, leads to excessive prolixity.

He expatiates on the danger to the United States from the ambition and overgrown power of France. He insists on the fixedness of the commercial character of the nation, on the importance of commerce, and on the value of peace; and confutes some of the absurd opinions of factious men, in respect to our separating ourselves from the European republick of nations, and renouncing commerce. He gives reasons, very much at length, to shew, 'that we have every thing to fear from France,' and we could wish that every American, who has any share of sense and patriotism, would give attention to his reasons. Our danger from France is no doubt great, even while Great Britain resists her arms: But our citizens are not less sunk in apathy, than, according to this writer, the administration is in cowardice. If he had discussed this part of his subject with rather more temperance of manner, we think he would have made more converts. He is full of his subject, and sees the publick dangers, as they approach, with the eyes of a statesman, and the zeal of a true republican. But as politicks is every body's amusement and nobody's business, few readers, we are afraid, will volunteer it to get the heart-ache by too close and long contemplation of the insidious ambition of Bonaparte, and the unpreparing, perhaps unforeseen, pusillanimity of our administration.

We repeat it, therefore, we could wish the style of this pamphlet had been more simple, and the matter of it condensed into forty or fifty pages. For it contains so many good things, which our citizens ought to know and consider, and the writer appears to possess so much information and sound political judgment, it is to be regretted that there is any thing to obstruct its circulation.

The democrats have not been sparing of electioneering pamphlets, which are not only below all criticism, but they have not lived long enough to meet it.

This pamphlet has, we confess, many faults, but it has many excellences, and, in our opinion, it is one of its excellences that it is composed in a spirit of boldness, and with a vigour of conception to denote the sincerity and zeal of the author. He speaks with the confidence of truth ; and if the friends of administration could be persuaded to think the sense and reason of our citizens of any essential importance to their popularity, which was built and still stands upon their ignorance and prejudices, it might be hoped there would be an answer to this performance. They are, however, too discreet to subject Mr. Jefferson's merits to so perilous a test. It is a very rare thing to hear of an able discussion of any political subject in our country, though it is very common in England. It is because in England they have a greater number of sensible readers, or that party has not reduced the men of sense to the condition of insignificance and impotence, that Mr. Jefferson has accomplished in America. If Mr. Madison feels any parental fondness for his doctrine concerning neutral rights, he will find an adversary worthy of his pen, in the author of this publication. The extreme folly of the non-importation law is also exhibited in a manner to confound its advocates.

Our transactions with France and Spain occupy about eighty pages, and we could wish that every opposer of the friends and measures of Washington and Adams would spend two or three winter evenings in reading these observations. If he could finish the reading without feeling any flushes of indignation, he must want the spirit of this ardent writer, and almost the spirit of a man.... On the whole, therefore, we earnestly recommend this publication to our readers.

We give the following extracts from the pamphlet, as specimens of the author's style :

> 'In what respect are we, then, different from the subjugated states of Holland, Switzerland, and the other nations which are dependent upon France ? We are fleeced to the full amount of our ability to pay—The United States have no fleets to add to the navy of France, and therefore they are not subjects of maritime requisition as Holland is—France does not want soldiers, for she supplies herself in Europe, and in part from Switzerland ; and here, again, we are more privileged than the descendants of William Tell—But money she ever craves, and, to use a proverb of her own, "*l'appetit vient en mangeant*"—The United States are called upon, with the threats of France suspended over their heads, for millions of dollars : and when we ask, with a rueful aspect, what she is to give us for our purse, she answers, in the true style of a highway robber, *give it, or I blow you through* : we do give it, and then preach about the clemency of those, who might have killed us, and yet spared our existence !
>
> Posterity will ask, who were the men, that thus betrayed their country's interests and glory ? They must have been creatures, who never pretended to the name of American patriots ; they could never have aspired to the characters of defenders of their country, and guardians of her greatness.' *P.* 146.

> 'In fact, what are we ever to fight for, if we are resolved not to defend ourselves ? or when are we to take a hos-

tile attitude, unless at the hour when tyranny and injustice are in array against us? Do we get our money for French masters? do the freemen of the United States plough every sea, from Greenland to Cape Horn, and round to Kamtschatka, and home again? do they visit every climate, and gather the precious wares of the globe, all for Napoleon's splendour? And do the American artisans and farmers pay an addition of price for the articles which they consume, because of an extra duty of two and a half per cent. laid on certain imported articles, all for the pockets of Frenchmen? What sort of independence is this, which looks so like slavery? Is this the spirit of seventy-six? In seventy-six we would not pay a shilling of tax upon tea, because they, who asked it, asked it unjustly; and, now, we give two millions of dollars more, than the tea tax would have come to in a dozen years, to buy a peace from tyrants, who will never be at peace with independence.' *P.* 155.

'The prayers of the good are ever ascending to heaven, that war may be averted from their country; but, when its horrours can no longer be deferred, the prayers of the good are for success to the arms of a righteous cause. So will it ever, I hope, be with us. They, who are privileged to approach and converse with omnipotence, will never fail, in their greatest duty, to pray for the happiness of this free land, and for its preservation against foreign and domestick enemies; and, surely, he is no American, who would seek to embroil us with any nation, or say that, war was necessary, when peace is our certain happiness.' *P.* 175.

ART. 69.

A Sermon, delivered July 2d, 1806, *at the ordination of the Rev. Joseph Richardson, A. M. to the pastoral care of the church and congregation of the first parish in Hingham, by the Rev. William Bentley, A. M. pastor of the second church in Salem.*

WE notice this sermon, because having read it through for that purpose, we do not choose to have so much labour lost. We were, however, somewhat staggered in this determination, as it is one of those productions which set criticism at defiance; the author having apparently sworn (as Shadwell is said to have done by Dryden) *to keep no truce with sense.* As for general observations, therefore, we can only remark, that, together with the usual appendages, this discourse forms a neat pamphlet of about twenty pages, stitched in blue, and printed at Boston. The text (we call it so by courtesy) is part of the concluding salutation of the 3d Epistle of St. John.

At no great distance from the beginning of the sermon, we found the following cluster of sentences:

'Time may weaken them, [prejudices] but they exist in the character of man. Victory is not by consent, and conquests seldom make friendships. At best, we are in a country, in which we may easily excite open rebellion. Not all the causes, which have concurred to recommend christianity, have preserved peace among its professors.'

As the last sentence but one appeared to us entirely disconnected, we thought, at first sight, that it might perhaps be a political observation, thrown in at random. However, we shall not be very confident in hazarding any opinion about Mr. B.'s meaning.

After forcing our way a little farther through the miserable brushwood of half-grown ideas, we came very abruptly upon the following observations:

'When life is sacred to good offices, men will confess its worth, and love its virtues. No prejudices will be open against it. No bigotry will exclude it, no superstition will refuse it, and every angry passion will pronounce it divine. Among good men such a friend is the angel of their strength, who is sure to comfort them.'

If the reader can discover sense in this passage, it must be ascribed rather to his own sagacity, than to the author's manner of using the English language.

The following was the next passage, which stopt us on our wearisome progress ; it being somewhere toward the bottom of the third page.

> 'A father Gay may leave a good name, though a witness of the interruptions of life. And a Dr. Price may have indulged a friend, who could aim to rob age of its divine consolations.'

We confess that we are able to form no conjecture of the purport of the first sentence, which we have quoted. Of Dr. Gay, however, who, as a clergyman, was the predecessor of the present Professor Ware, we have heard nothing but good, and are sufficiently displeased to see his name introduced with such indecent familiarity, into such a sermon.

We will now bring forward an extract, somewhat longer than any we have yet offered :

> 'But though a good name may be the reward of integrity, yet it is to be gained by a good life. It seldom accompanies a man in all parts of his life. The disposition of light and shade in the picture, serve to finish it. He, who seeks no other recommendation, than present opinion may bring with it, may be seen, in the worst temptation, to abandon all just claim to virtue. A christian minister should not fall into such an errour. It is true, his doctrine is drawn from simple records, but he is not the only man who has examined them. Truth is pure, but the discipline of every christian association has not been drawn from truth itself. Like a father, he may prefer some ancient example....Like a friend, provide for a more pure state of society....As a christian, he may aspire after more generous affection.'

Surely no one will deny us praise, when, as drudges in the cause of literature, we have toiled through fifteen pages like this. We have not, however, the heart (like Dogberry) to bestow any more such tediousness upon our readers.

If we were to judge, from this production, we should conclude, that its author had not an whole idea in his mind. He certainly shines as a distinguished luminary among those stars, that Addison somewhere speaks of, which ray out darkness. Menenius (in Shakespeare) says of Coriolanus, that he is

> "ill schooled
> In boulted language ; meal and bran together
> He throws without distinction."

There is nothing worth notice in the other performances delivered upon the occasion.

ART. 69.

The Christian Monitor, a religious periodical work. By a society for promoting Christian knowledge, piety, and charity. No. III. containing eight sermons on the means of religion. Boston, Munroe & Francis. 12*mo. boards, pp.* 192.

A RELIGIOUS periodical work, well conducted, is always in place. The subject, being of universal and constant importance, should be presented in every form that promises to be useful. Small tracts and fugitive pieces are among the obvious means of maintaining and extending the principles and practice of religion. They are adapted to that numerous class of persons, who want leisure, capacity, or inclination to consult voluminous and systematick works. Publications of this popular cast are peculiarly suited to the condition of a people, among whom the readers are many and the students few ; and among whom, consequently, the reception and usefulness of books are affected by the circumstances of their form and size. It must be admitted, that this avenue to the minds of men has not been neglected any where, at any period, since the discovery of printing, and may seem with us to be at present sufficiently occupied by religious productions, native and imported, of every size and character. But in this wide field there is room for successive labours. Much good may always be done by reviving old works, which have fallen into undeserved neglect; bringing into general notice others, which have a limited circulation, and by writing new treatises adapted to the state of opinions, and the spirit, taste, and manners of the times.

To conduct and support a publication comprising these objects, is the avowed design of the society under whose auspices the Christian Monitor appears. It is intended to contain, in a series of numbers, original and selected essays and sermons on the leading doctrines and duties of christianity, explanations of scripture, prayers, meditations, and other species of composition on sacred and moral topicks. In regard to theological opinions and questions of party the Monitor professes to be catholick, and to give instruction which the enlightened & serious of different sentiments may approve. It proposes to wear a practical, not disputatious aspect; to promote improvement, not to foment contention. It will therefore not go out of its way to treat controverted points; and when they necessarily occur, observe the laws of christian moderation. In *style and manner* it would be so intelligible and affecting, as may be requisite to profit and please the unlearned; and so correct and elegant, as not to offend the taste, nor forfeit the regard of more cultivated readers, who, however informed in other respects, have frequently as much need of religious knowledge as the illiterate.

We think a religious periodical work of such a character cannot fail to be acceptable and useful to many. It must serve to withstand the causes of irreligion and vice in general, and those, which mark the present times and state of society in particular. It must counteract the effects of ignorance and unbelief, of a disposition to thoughtlessness and levity; of misguided zeal and an arrogant, censorious, and uncharitable temper in some; of indifference and coldness in others. In one respect, if the execution comport with the design, it will fill a place hitherto unoccupied by similar publications in this country. The latter incorporate with their practical instruction speculative principles, which are contested, and particular phraseology, by many deemed exceptionable. This work professes to avoid resting the truth or excellence of christianity upon the certainty or value of those tenets, or the propriety of those phrases which have for ages divided and disturbed the christian world. It must therefore be suited to those, who feel incompetent and indisposed to be controvertists; and who would have a creed, comprising the general and evident doctrines of revelation, unperplexed with the subtilties of metaphysicks and unincumbered with the dogmas of technical theology. One class of persons only cannot endure such a method of teaching and inculcating the christian religion. It consists of those, who regard christianity, when represented without their *peculiar* and favourite constructions and inferences, as good for nothing; and a christian, not belonging to their party, nor using their phraseology, as no better than a heathen. But as the dissatisfaction of these persons with the design of the Monitor is founded on what, in the opinion of its editors, constitutes its merit, the latter cannot be expected to prevent or remove it.

We had occasion to commend the former numbers of the Monitor, as adapted to its professed end. We spoke of the first, especially in the second edition, as an excellent manual of devotion; and of the second, as a happy illustration of the nature and spirit of practical christianity, as they are displayed in the character and conduct of our Saviour.

The present number is upon the *Means of religion.* It treats of the *importance and utility of religious means in general*, *religious consideration*, *prayer*, *the religious observance of the sabbath*, *publick worship*, *hearing the word*, *reading the holy scriptures*, and *religious conversation.*

These are topicks at once seasonable and important. It is very possible and has been very common in religion to lay undue stress upon instrumental duties and external performances. Enthusiasm has idolized its reveries and superstition rested upon rites and forms. Mankind, wishing for a cheap religion, have substituted the means for the end, the sign for the thing signified, the form for the power of godliness. It is far more easy to be orthodox, than good; to maintain a grave exteriour, than inward sanctity; to separate seasons for devout exercises, than to connect piety with the course of ordinary life. It costs far less self-denial to roll the eye, than to lift the soul to God, and to bend our knees, than to humble our pride. Men can read the scriptures, so as to become accomplished textuaries; and yet be strangers to the spirit breathed in the word of God. They can be pious with the mouth and tongue, and talk earnestly in all places and companies upon serious subjects, and yet grossly fail to live as they profess. "A pharisee's trumpet, says an old writer, shall be heard to the town's end, when simplicity walks through the town unseen." "Observed duties maintain our credit, but secret duties maintain our life."

But the danger to the cause of religion among us probably arises from another extreme; and we have less reason to fear the prevalence of superstition, hypocrisy, and enthusiasm, than indifference, scepticism, and a mistaken liberality. A great number, including some who have the character of enlightened men, able to rise above the power of prejudice, are more inclined to undervalue and neglect the forms and means of religion, than to exalt them into a disproportionate importance. They have a disposition to depreciate instrumental and positive duties; to consider themselves above the need of such assistances to piety, and that if they cultivate its spirit, they have no occasion to trouble themselves about its ceremonies. Hence they look to be religious, without meditation and prayer. They reject the aid of publick solemnities, or attend them without seriousness. Many are becoming inclined to remove the "mark of discrimination from the christian sabbath, and to blend it in the mass of unhallowed days." The custom of reading the scriptures, once so general, is falling into neglect, and serious topicks are very much excluded from conversation.

The volume under review displays the obligation and advantage of some of those exercises, called the means of religion, in a very satisfactory and engaging manner.—They are here represented both as holding an important place in the scale of human duties, and as necessary and suitable means for the formation of a virtuous and pious character. These discourses are marked by good sense, just theology, and a style easy, perspicuous, and pleasing. The author illustrates and enforces the sentiments he advances, not only by apt citations of passages of scripture, but by occasional extracts from the works of divines of venerable name. In reviewing a production of this kind it is not proper to try every expression by the rules of strict criticism; though in a literary view, and as a specimen of accurate composition, this volume is highly respectable. But whatever is written with a design to make men good should be estimated, not so much by its literary execution as by its tendency to effect its leading purpose. Whoever, be he learned or unlearned, shall read these sermons with a desire of being made wiser and better; of being informed and excited in his duty, will not need to be told that they are entitled to commendation. We present two extracts; the one from the sermon on "religious consideration," the other from the sermon "on prayer."

'Behold then the man who imitates the laudable example of the psalmist, and adopts a measure favourable to his recovery from guilt and misery to virtue and glory. Roused from the visionary dream of lasting peace and comfort, independent of the approbation and favour of his God, he takes a comprehensive view of the nature, circumstances, and relations of his being; and diligently inquires to what end he was born, and for what purpose he came into the world? He contemplates the heavens and the earth with increased attention, and is penetrated with a sense of the wisdom, power, and benevolence of their glorious author, which he has not been accustomed to feel. He turns his thoughts within; and, in the curious structure of his body, and the wonderful properties of his soul, recognizes incontestible evidence of his derivation from an infinite intelligence, to whom he is indebted for existence and all its blessings. He recounts the numerous tokens of parental kindness, which he has received from his heavenly father, in the distinguished rank allotted him among the creatures of God; in the abundant provision made for his subsistence and accommodation; and in the still more illustrious manifestations of grace and truth for his eternal redemption by Jesus Christ. Convinced by these beneficent arrangements and signal interpositions, that man is formed for more dignity and durable enjoyment than earth can boast, it becomes a question of the first magnitude, whether he have not pursued the shadow to the neglect of the substance, and relied for happiness on possessions and gratifications incapable of yielding it? He therefore, "thinks on his ways;" considers with himself, what fruit he has already had, and what he is yet to expect from the course he has taken. Past experience thus called to testify bears witness that no sensual indulgence, or worldly acquisition has afforded the bliss it promised; that forbidden pleasures are always empty in participation and disgusting in review; and that the gains of ungodliness are invariably attended with remorse and foreboding fear. The more he reflects, the more sensibly does he feel, that nothing below the sun is adequate to the desires and capacities of an immortal mind; and the more clearly does he see, that "the wages of sin is death"; that beside the pain and sufferings, which it inflicts in this life, and which not unfrequently hasten the hour of dissolution, it entails the most insupportable evils on its deluded votaries beyond the grave.' p. 37.

'2. To pray for our connexions and friends, serves to purify domestick and social attachments; and to inspire principles and views, which exalt the ordinary interchange of civility and kindness into religious obedience.

This is a most effectual method of

inducing christian forbearance, condescension, and charity, in the treatment of those, with whom we are destined to live and converse. Without it, though we prescribe rules to ourselves, and say to the selfish and angry passions, "hitherto shall ye come, but no further," we may, notwithstanding, be transported beyond the bounds of moderation, and involved in the crimes and miseries of unreasonable animosity: With it, religion is made the umpire of our conduct, and the question comes home to our bosoms; how can we be unjust or censorious to those whom we are accustomed to commend to the guardian care and grace of God? The many petitions, in which we have plead for mercy in their behalf, will react upon our own hearts, and, calling into exercise our benevolent sensibilities, furnish the strongest incentives to that affectionate and conciliating deportment, which beside its conformity to the gospel of Christ, and the attendant prospect of a future reward, is adapted to engage the confidence and esteem of all within the sphere of its influence. Than this practice, what can more effectually ensure a uniform and faithful discharge of the various duties, which result from the conjugal, parental, filial, fraternal, and other intimate relations of human life. It sanctifies, cements, and endears the union between husband and wife. It encourages and directs parents in the instruction and government of their household. It heightens the gratitude, docility, and submission of children. It excites and aids brethren to "dwell together in unity." That family, whose heads and members bear each other in mind at their secret devotions; and, frequently appearing before God in company, jointly call upon his name for a supply of their individual and collective wants, must, of course, be impressed with a sense of their respective obligations, which will pervade every domestick transaction, alleviate every burden, and increase every joy. pp. 66, 67.

ART. 70.

A wreath for the Rev. Daniel Dow, pastor of a church in Thompson, Connecticut; on the publication of his familiar letters in answer to the Rev. John Sherman's treatise of one God in one person only, &c. By A. O. F. Utica, Merrell & Seward. 1806. 8vo.

BY reverting to the nineteenth and twentieth articles of our Review for the current year, the theological reader will readily discern the purport of this controversial tract. Its author, a warm friend of Mr. Sherman and of his unitarian sentiments, endeavours to support them; presses on his antagonist the protestant rule of the perfection and sufficiency of scripture; and, it must be confessed, detects a number of errours, not to say absurdities, in the "familiar letters." A. O. F. appears to think that he is justified by the example of the letter-writer in approaching him without any ceremony. He is sometimes serious and sometimes ludicrous, but uniformly severe; so full of sarcasm and personal reflections, and dealing his blows with so heavy a hand, as makes us almost quake for the lacerated feelings of the Rev. Daniel Dow.

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ON THE LITERARY CHARACTER OF *DR. FRANKLIN.*

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FROM A CELEBRATED ENGLISH PUBLICATION.

NOTHING, we think, can shew more clearly the singular want of literary enterprize or activity in the States of America, than that no one has yet been found in that flourishing republick to collect and publish the works of their only philosopher. It is not even very creditable to the liberal curiosity of the English publick, that there should have been no complete edition of the writings of Dr. Franklin, till the year 1806 : and we should have been altogether unable to account for the imperfect and unsatisfactory manner in which the task has now been performed, if it had not been for a statement in the prefatory advertisement, which removes all blame from the editor, to attach it to a higher quarter. It is there stated, that recently after the death of the author, his grandson, to whom the whole of his papers had been bequeathed, made a voyage to London, for the purpose of preparing and disposing of a complete collection of all his published and unpublished writings, with memoirs of his life, brought down by himself to the year 1757, and continued to his death by his descendant. It was settled, that the work should be published in three quarto volumes, in England, Germany, and France ; and a negociation was commenced with the booksellers, as to the terms of the purchase and publication. At this stage of the business, however, the proposals were suddenly withdrawn, and nothing more has been heard of the work in this its fair and natural market. "The proprietor, it seems, had found a bidder of a different description, in *some emissary of government,* whose object was to *withhold* the manuscripts from the world, not to benefit it by their publication ; and they thus either passed into other hands, or the person to whom they were bequeathed received a remuneration for *suppressing* them."

If this statement be correct, we have no hesitation in saying, that no emissary of Government was ever employed on a more miserable and unworthy service. It is ludicrous to talk of the danger of disclosing, in 1795, any secrets of state, with regard to the war of American independence ; and as to any anecdotes or observations that might give offence to individuals, we think it should always be remembered, that publick functionaries are the property of the publick, that their character belongs to history and to posterity, and that it is equally absurd and discreditable to think of *suppressing* any part of the evidence, by which their merits must be ultimately determined. But the whole of the works that have been suppressed, certainly did not relate to republican politicks. The history of the author's life, down to 1757, could not well contain any matter of offence ; and a variety of general remarks and speculations, which he is understood to have left behind him, might have been permitted to see the light, though his diplomatick operations had been interdicted. The emissary of Government, however, probably took no care of these things ; he was resolved 'to leave no rubs nor botches in his work ;' and, to stifle the dreaded revelation, he thought the best way was to strangle all the innocents in the vicinage.

This self-taught American is the most rational, perhaps, of all philosophers. He never loses sight of common sense in any of his speculations ; and when his philosophy does not consist entirely in its fair and vigorous application, it is always regulated and controuled by it in its application and result. No individual, perhaps, ever possessed a juster understanding, or was so seldom obstructed in the use of it by indolence, enthusiasm, or authority.

Dr. Franklin received no regular education ; and he spent the great-

or part of his life in a society where there was no relish, and no encouragement for literature. On an ordinary mind these circumstances would have produced their usual effects, of repressing all sort of intellectual ambition or activity, and perpetuating a generation of incurious mechanicks; but to an understanding like Franklin's, we cannot help considering them as peculiarly propitious, and imagine that we can trace back to them, distinctly, almost all the peculiarities of his intellectual character.

Regular education, we think, is unfavourable to vigour or originality of understanding. Like civilization, it makes society more intelligent and agreeable; but it levels the distinctions of nature. It strengthens and assists the feeble; but it deprives the strong of his triumph, and casts down the hopes of the aspiring. It accomplishes this, not only by training up the mind in an habitual veneration for authorities, but, by leading us to bestow a disproportionate degree of attention upon studies that are only valuable as keys or instruments for the understanding, they come at last to be regarded as ultimate objects of pursuit; and the means of education are absurdly mistaken for its end. How many powerful understandings have been lost in the Dialecticks of Aristotle! and of how much good philosophy are we daily defrauded, by the preposterous errour of taking a knowledge of prosody for useful learning! The mind of a man, who has escaped this training, will at least have fair play. Whatever other errours he may fall into, he will be safe at least from these infatuations. If he thinks proper, after he grows up, to study Greek, it will be for some better purpose, than to become acquainted with its dialects. His prejudices will be those of a man, and not of a schoolboy; and his speculations and conclusions will be independent of the maxims of tutors, and the oracles of literary patrons.

The consequences of living in a refined and literary community are nearly of the same kind with those of a regular education. There are so many criticks to be satisfied—so many qualifications to be established—so many rivals to encounter, and so much derision to be hazarded, that a young man is apt to be deterred from so perilous an enterprize, and led to seek for distinction in some safer line of exertion. He is discouraged by the fame and the perfection of certain models and favourites, who are always in the mouths of his judges, and, 'under them, his genius is rebuked,' and his originality repressed, till he sinks into a paltry copyist, or aims at distinction, by extravagance and affectation. In such a state of society, he feels that mediocrity has no chance of distinction; and what beginner can expect to rise at once into excellence? He imagines that mere good sense will attract no attention; and that the manner is of much more importance than the matter, in a candidate for publick admiration. In his attention to the manner, the matter is apt to be neglected; and, in his solicitude to please those who require elegance of diction, brilliancy of wit, or harmony of periods, he is in some danger of forgetting that strength of reason, and accuracy of observation, by which he first propose to recommend himself. His attention, when extended to so many collateral objects, is no longer vigorous or collected,—the stream divided into so many channels, ceases to flow either deep or strong;—he becomes an unsuccessful pretender to fine writing, and is satisfied with the frivolous praise of elegance or vivacity.

We are disposed to ascribe so much power to these obstructions to intellectual originality, that we cannot help fancying, that, if Franklin had been bred in a college, he would have contented himself with expounding the metres of Pindar, and mixing argument with his port in the common room; and that if Boston had abounded with men of letters, he would never had ventured to come forth from his printing-house, or been driven back to it, at any rate, by the sneers of the critics, after the first publication of his essays in the Busy Body.

This will probably be thought exaggerated; but it cannot be denied, we think, that the contrary circumstances in his history had a powerful effect in determining the character of his understanding, and in producing those peculiar habits of reasoning and investigation by which his writings are distinguished. He was encouraged to publish, because there was scarcely any one around him whom he could not easily excel. He wrote with great brevity, because he had not leisure for more voluminous compositions, and because he knew that the readers to whom he addressed himself were, for the most part, as busy as himself. For the same reason, he studied great perspicuity and simplicity of statement: his countrymen had no relish for fine writing, and could not easily be made to understand a deduction depending on a long or elaborate process of reasoning. He was forced, therefore, to concentrate what he had to say; and since he had no chance of being admired for the beauty of his composition, it was natural for him to aim at making an impression by the force and the clearness of his statements.

His conclusions were often rash and inaccurate, from the same circumstances which rendered his productions concise. Philosophy and speculation did not form the business of his life; nor did he dedicate himself to any particular study, with a view to exhaust and complete the investigation of it in all its parts, and under all its relations. He engaged in every interesting inquiry that suggested itself to him, rather as the necessary exercise of a powerful and active mind, than as a task which he had bound himself to perform. He cast a quick and penetrating glance over the facts and the *data* that were presented to him; and drew his conclusions with a rapidity and precision that have not often been equalled; but he did not stop to examine the completeness of the *data* upon which he proceeded, nor to consider the ultimate effect or application of the principles to which he had been conducted. In all questions, therefore, where the facts upon which he was to determine, and the materials from which his judgment was to be formed, were either few in number, or of such a nature as not to be overlooked, his reasonings are for the most part perfectly just and conclusive, and his decisions unexceptionably sound; but where the elements of the calculation were more numerous and widely scattered, it appears to us that he has often been precipitate and that he has either been misled by a partial apprehension of the conditions of the problem, or has discovered only a portion of the truth which lay before him. In all physical inquiries; in almost all questions of particular and immediate policy; and in much of what relates to the practical wisdom and the happiness of private life, his views will be found to be admirable, and the reasoning by which they are supported most masterly and convincing. But upon subjects of general politicks, of abstract morality, and political economy, his notions appear to be more unsatisfactory and incomplete. He seems to have wanted leisure, and perhaps inclination also, to spread out before him the whole vast premises of these extensive sciences, and scarcely to have had patience to hunt for his conclusions through so wide and intricate a region as that upon which they invited him to enter. He has been satisfied, therefore, on every occasion, with reasoning from a very limited view of the facts, and often from a particular instance; he has done all that sagacity and sound sense could do with such materials; but it cannot excite wonder, if he has sometimes overlooked an essential part of the argument, and often advanced a particular truth into the place of a general principle. He seldom reasoned upon these subjects at all, we believe, without having some practical application of them immediately in view; and as he began the investigation rather to determine a particular case, than to establish a general maxim, so he probably desisted as soon as he had relieved himself of the present difficulty.

There are not many among the thorough bred scholars and philosophers of Europe, who can lay claim to distinction in more than one or two departments of science or literature. The uneducated tradesman of America has left writings, that call for our attention, in natural philosophy,—in politicks,—in political economy,—and in general literature and morality.

Dr. Franklin, we think, has never made use of the mathematicks, in his investigation of the phenomena of nature; and though this may render it surprising that he has fallen into so few errours of importance, we conceive that it helps in some measure to explain the unequalled perspicuity and vivacity of his expositions. An algebraist, who can work wonders with letters, seldom condescends to be much indebted to words, and thinks himself entitled to make his sentences obscure, provided his calculations be distinct. A writer who has nothing but words to make use of, must make all the use he can of them: he cannot afford to neglect the only chance he has of being understood.

We should now say something of the political writings of Dr. Franklin,—the productions which first raised him into publick office and eminence, and which will be least read or attended to by posterity. They may be divided into two parts; those which relate to the internal affairs and provincial differences of the American colonies, before their quarrel with the mother country; and those which relate to that quarrel and its consequences. The former are no longer in any degree interesting: and the editor has done wisely, we think, in presenting his readers with an abstract only of the longest of them; this was published in 1759, under the title of an Historical Review of the Constitution of Pennsylvania, and consisted of upwards of 500 pages, composed for the purpose of shewing, that the political privileges reserved to the founder of the colony had been illegally and oppressively used.— The Canada pamphlet, written in 1760, for the purpose of pointing out the importance of retaining that colony at the peace, is given entire; and appears to be composed with great force of reason, and in a style of extraordinary perspicuity. The same may be said of what are called the Albany papers, or the plan for a general political union of the colonies in 1754; and of a variety of other tracts on the provincial politicks of that day. All these are worth preserving, both as monuments of Dr. Franklin's talents and activity, and as affording, in many places, very excellent models of strong reasoning and popular eloquence; but the interest of the subjects is now completely gone by: and the few specimens of general reasoning which we meet with serve only to increase our regret, that the talents of the author should have been wasted on such perishable materials.

There is not much written on the subject of the dispute with the colonies; and most of Dr. Franklin's papers on that subject are already well known to the publick. His examination before the House of Commons in 1766, affords a striking proof of the extent of his information, the clearness and force of his *extempore* composition, and the steadiness and self-possession, which enabled him to display these qualities with so much effect upon such an occasion. His letters before the commencement of hostilities, are full of grief and anxiety; but, no sooner did matters come to extremities, than he appears to have assumed a certain keen and confident cheerfulness, not unmixed with a seasoning of asperity, and more vindictiveness of spirit, than perhaps became a philosopher.

None of Dr. Franklin's political writings, during the nine years when he resided as Ambassadour at the Court of France, have yet been made publick. Some of them, we should imagine, must be highly interesting.

Of the merit of this author as a political economist, we have already had occasion to say something, in the general remarks which we made on the character of his genius; and we cannot now spare time to go much into particulars. He is perfectly sound upon many important and practical points;—upon the corn-trade, and the theory of money, for instance; and also upon the more general doctrines, as to the freedom of commerce, and the principle of population. In the more elementary and abstract parts of the science, however, his views seem to have been less just and luminous. He is not very consistent or profound, in what he says of the effects of luxury; and seems to have gone headlong into the radical errour of the *Economistes*, when he maintains, that all that is done by manufacture, is to embody the value of the manufacturer's subsistence in his work, and that agriculture is the only source from which a real increase of wealth can be derived. Another favourite position is, that all commerce is *cheating*, where a commodity, produced by a certain quantity of labour, is exchanged for another, on which more labour has been expended; and that the only *fair* price of any thing, is some other thing requiring the same exertion to bring it to market. This is evidently a very narrow and erroneous view of the nature of commerce. The fair price to the purchaser is, whatever he deliberately chooses to give, rather than go without the commodity; it is no matter to him, whether the seller bestowed much or little labour upon it, or whether it came into his possession without any labour at all; whether it be a diamond, which he picked up, or a picture, at which he had been working for years. The commodity is not valued by the purchaser, on account of the labour which is supposed to be embodied in it, but solely on account of certain qualities, which he finds convenient or agreeable; he compares the convenience and delight which he expects to derive from this object, with the convenience and delight which is afforded by the things asked in exchange for it; and if he find the former preponderate, he consents to the exchange, and makes a beneficial bargain. We have stated the case in the name of a purchaser, because, in barter, both parties are truly purchasers, and act upon the same principles; and it is easy to shew, that all commerce resolves itself ultimately into barter. There can be no unfairness in trade, except where there is concealment on the part of the seller, either of the defects of the commodity, or of the fact that the purchaser may be supplied with it at a cheaper rate by another. It is a matter of *fact*, but not of *morality*, that the price of most commodities will be influenced by the labour employed in producing them. If they are capable of being produced in unlimited quantities, the competition of the producers will sink the price very nearly to what is necessary to maintain this labour; and the impossibility of continuing the production, without repaying that labour, will prevent it from sinking lower. The doctrine does not apply at all, to cases where the materials, or the skill necessary to work them up, are scarce in proportion to the demand. The author's speculation on the effects of paper-money, seem also to be superficial and inaccurate. *Statisticks* had not been carefully studied in the days of his activity; and, accordingly, we meet with a good deal of loose assumption, and sweeping calculation, in his writings. Yet he had a genius for exact observation, and complicated detail; and probably wanted nothing but leisure, to have made very great advances in this branch of economy.

As a writer on morality and general literature, the merits of Dr. Franklin cannot be estimated properly, without taking into consideration the peculiarities, that have been already alluded to, in his early history and situation. He never had the benefit of any academical instruction, nor of the society of men of letters; his style was formed entirely by his own judgment and reading; and most of his moral pieces were written while he was a tradesman, addressing himself to the tradesmen of his native city. We cannot expect, therefore, either that he should write with extraordinary elegance or grace; or that he should treat of the accomplishments, follies, and occupations of polite life. He had no great occasion, as a moralist, to expose the guilt and the folly of gaming or seduction; or to point a poignant and playful ridicule against the lighter immoralities of fashionable life. To the mechanicks and traders of Boston and Philadelphia, such warnings were altogether unnecessary; and he endeavoured, therefore, with more appropriate eloquence, to impress upon them the importance of industry, sobriety, and economy, and to direct their wise and humble ambition to the attainment of useful knowledge and honourable independence. That morality, after all, is certainly the most valuable, which is adapted to the circumstances of the greater part of mankind; and that eloquence is the most meritorious, that is calculated to convince and persuade the multitude to virtue. Nothing can be more perfectly and beautifully adapted to its object, than most of Dr. Franklin's compositions of this sort. The tone of familiarity, of good-will, and homely jocularity; the plain and pointed illustrations; the short sentences, made up of short words; and the strong sense, clear information, and obvious conviction of the author himself, make most of his moral exhortations perfect models of popular eloquence; and afford the finest specimens of a style which has been but too little cultivated in a country, which numbers perhaps more than one hundred thousand readers among its tradesmen and artificers.

In writings which possess such solid and unusual merit, it is of no great consequence that the fastidious eye of a critick can discover many blemishes. There is a good deal of vulgarity in the practical writings of Dr. Franklin; and more vulgarity than was any way necessary for the object he had in view. There is something childish, too, in some of his attempts at pleasantry; his story of the Whistle, and his Parisian letter, announcing the discovery that the sun gives light as soon as he rises, are instances of this. The soliloquy of an Ephemeris, however, is much better; and both it, and the Dialogue with the Gout, are executed with the lightness and spirit of genuine French compositions. The Speech in the Divan of Algiers, composed as a parody on those of the defenders of the slave-trade, and the scriptural parable against persecution, are inimitable; they have all the point and facility of the fine pleasantries of Swift and Arbuthnot, with something more of directness and apparent sincerity.

The style of his letters, in general, is excellent. They are chiefly remarkable for great simplicity of language, admirable good sense and ingenuity, and an amiable and inoffensive cheerfulness, that is never overclouded or eclipsed. Among the most valuable of the writings that are published for the first time, in the last edition, are four letters from Dr. Franklin to Mr. Whatley, written within a few years of his death, and expressive of all that unbroken gaiety, philanthropy, and activity, which distinguish the compositions of his earlier years.

His account of his own life, down to the year 1730, has been in the hands of the publick since 1790. It is written with great simplicity and liveliness, though it contains too many trifling details and anecdotes of obscure individuals. It affords a striking example of the irresistible force with which talents and industry bear upwards in society, as well as an impressive illustration of the substantial wisdom and good policy of invariable integrity and candour. We should think it a very useful reading for all young persons of unsteady principle, who have their fortunes to make or to mend in the world. Upon the whole, we look upon the life and writings of Dr. Franklin as affording a striking illustration of the incalculable value of a sound and well directed understanding, and of the comparative uselessness of learning and laborious accomplishments. Without the slightest pretensions to the character of a scholar or a man of science, he has extended the bounds of human knowledge on a variety of subjects, which scholars and men of science had previously investigated without success; and has only been found deficient in those studies which the learned have generally turned from in disdain. We would not be understood to say any thing in disparagement of scholarship and science; but the value of these instruments is apt to be overrated by their possessors; and it is a wholesome mortification, to shew them that the work may be done without them. We have long known, that their employment does not ensure its success.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

Of New Publications in the United States for December.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—Mart.

NEW WORKS.

American Annals; or a chronological history of America, from its discovery in 1492, to 1806. In 2 volumes. By Abiel Holmes, D.D. A.A.S. S.H.S. minister of the first church in Cambridge. —*Suum quæque in annum referre. Tacit. annal.* Vol. II., comprising a period of one hundred and fourteen years. 8vo. pp. 540. Price $4. Cambridge, Wm. Hilliard.

The Philadelphia Medical Museum, for June and July, 1806. Vol. II. No. II. Total, No. X. Conducted by John Redman Coxe, M. D. of Philadelphia. 8vo. Price 50 cts. Philadelphia, for Thomas Dobson. Bartram, printer.

The Philadelphia Medical and Physical Journal, Part II, Vol. II, collected and arranged by Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D. Professor of Materia Medica, Natural History, and Botany, in the University of Pennsylvania. 8vo. $1, boards. Philadelphia, Conrad & Co.

A Report of the Trial of Andrew Wright, on an indictment for libels against Governour Strong, before the Hon. Theophilus Parsons, chief justice of the supreme judicial court of Massachusetts, at Northampton, September term, 1806. 8vo. 25 cents. Northampton, Wright.

Politicks Sermonized; exhibited in Ashfield, on July 4, 1806. By Elder John Leland. 12 cts. Northampton.

No. I. of The Monthly Register, Magazine, and Review of the United States, for December. Being a continuation of the Monthly Register and Review, newly arranged. This work will be conducted as before, by S. C. Carpenter, in connection with another gentleman of first rate acquirements in every department of literature. Price $6 per ann. 8vo. pp. 64. New-York.

A View of the Blood Vessels of the Human Body, from engravings lately published in England, by an eminent artist, under the direceion of Sir Christopher Pegge, Professor of Anatomy in the University of Oxford. The size of the engravings, which are beautifully coloured, is 20 by 30 inches. Price $8. Philadelphia, D. Edwin.

The Sacred Minstrel, No. I. Containing an introduction to psalmody, practical essay on modulation, and a collection of sacred musick, suitable for religious worship, selected and composed. By Uri K. Hill. Price 50 cts. Boston, Manning & Loring.

A Vision respecting the fate of the Rev. John Sherman's last publication; or his "View of Ecclesiastical Proceedings, &c." offered to the publick as a spur to the lovers of truth and long established doctrines—to defend the wholesome religion of our fathers against the daring attempts of modern innovators in church and state.—*Ridentem dicere verum quid vetat.* Price 12½ cts. Worcester, Isaiah Thomas, jun.

Two Sermons on quitting the old, and entering the new meeting house, in the first parish of Newbury; with an appendix, containing an historical account of the parish from the first settlement of the church and ministry, and biographical sketches of the several ministers. By John S. Popkin, A. M. 8vo. pp. 72. Newburyport, A. March.

Free Communion of all Christians at the Lord's Table; illustrated and defended, in a discourse. To which is added, a short specimen of the proceedings of the Baptist Church, and Council, in their labour with, and withdrawing fellowship from the author. By Elder Simeon Snow, late Elder of a Baptist Church in Guilford. Greenfield, Denio.

A Discourse, commemorative of the late Maj. Gen. William Moultrie, delivered in the Independent Church, Charleston, (S. C.) on the 15th of

Oct. 1805, at the request of the Society of the Cincinnati of South-Carolina, before that Society and the American Revolution Society. By William Hollingshead, D. D. Charleston. Peter Freneau.

The happy voyage completed, and the sure anchor cast. A sermon, occasioned by the universally lamented death of Capt. Jonathan Parsons, who departed this life at sea, Dec. 29, 1781, in the 50th year of his age: preached at the Presbyterian church in Newburyport, Feb. 27, 1788. Published at the request of the Newburyport Marine Society. By John Murray, pastor of said church. 8vo. Newburyport, reprinted by W. Allen. Dec. 1806.

Two Discourses, occasioned by the sudden deaths of Joseph Brown, jun. Æt. 23, and James Jenness, Æt. 24; who were drowned near Rye-beach, N. H. on the evening of the 9th Sept. 1806. The former delivered Sept. 10th, at the time of interment; the latter delivered the Lord's day following. By William Pidgin, A.M. minister of a Presbyterian Church in Hampton.—Newburyport, E. W. Allen.

A Sermon, preached at the meeting-house in the vicinity of Dartmouth College, on the sabbath preceding Commencement, 1806; and published at the request of the inhabitants and students. By Elijah Parish, A.M. pastor of the church of Christ in Byefield, Mass. Hanover, N.H. Davis. 1806.

A correct Table of the real and imaginary Monies of the whole Commercial World, with the intrinsick Value of the Coin of each country reduced to Federal Money. 25 cents. Boston, Russell & Cutler.

The Voice of the Turtle; a selection of devotional pieces in verse and prose, being the exercises of young converts. By Thomas Rand, A. B. 37 cents. Northampton, Wright.

The Village Compilation of Sacred Musick; containing upwards of one hundred and forty pieces of Musick, calculated for divine worship; besides a number of set pieces, for occasional purposes. By Daniel Belknap. Price 75 cts. Boston, Manning & Loring.

NEW EDITIONS.

The Works of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 491. Boston, published by John West, 75, Cornhill, and O. C. Greenleaf, 3, Court-Street, 1806.

A Translation of the Alcoran of Mahomet. Worcester, I. Thomas, jun.

Poems, written on different occasions, by Charlotte Richardson; to which is prefixed, some account of the author. By Catharine Cappe. 12mo. Philadelphia, Kimber, Conrad & Co.

Biographical Memoirs of William Henry West Betty. 12mo. 75 cents. New-York, Robert Mc Dermut.

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The Philadelphia Practical Vocabulary, Latin and English, consisting of more than two thousand Nouns substantive, appellative, and proper, with a numerous collection of Adjectives. By James Ross, A.M. Professor of the Latin and Greek languages. 2d edition improved. Philadelphia, T. & W. Bradford.

Part 1. of Vol. V. of a new and complete Encyclopædia, or universal dictionary of arts and sciences. 4to. $5,50 per vol. New-York, John Low.

An Abridgement of English Grammar. With an appendix, containing an exemplification of the parts of speech, and exercises in syntax. Designed for the use of the younger classes of readers. By Lindley Murray, author of several valuable publications. Second Worcester edition, corrected and enlarged, with notes, and a new system of punctuation. By a Gentleman of Massachusetts. 12 mo. Worcester, Isaiah Thomas, jun.

The Stranger in Ireland: or a tour in the southern and western parts of that country in the year 1805. By John Carr, author of the Stranger in France, &c. 12mo. pp. 312. Hartford, Lincoln & Gleason.

Fenelon's Treatise on the Education of Daughters; translated from the French, and adapted to the English readers, with an original chapter "On Religious Studies." By the Rev. T. F. Dibdin, author of the Introduction to the knowledge of the best editions of the Greek and Latin classicks, &c. 12mo. pp. 251. $1 bound. Albany, Backus & Whiting.

IN THE PRESS.

A new edition, being the second, of "The History of Napoleon Bonaparte, emperour of the French and king of Italy." 12mo. $1 boards. Baltimore.

A familiar Survey of the Christian Religion, and of History as connected with the introduction of Christianity, and with its progress to the present time. Intended primarily for the use of young persons of either sex, during the course of publick or private education. By Thos. Gisborne, A.M. New-York, Bernard Domin.

Sir Wm. Forbes' Life of Beattie. 2 vols. 8vo. New-York, Riley & Co.

The Picture of New-York, &c. New-York, Riley & Co.

Depons' Voyage to the Spanish Maine. 3 vls. 8vo. N.York, Riley & Co.

Mrs. West's Letters to her Daughter. New-York, Riley & Co.

The Christian Monitor, No. IV. 12mo. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

No. I. of the second Boston edition of Shakespeare's Works, with Johnson'sNotes. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

Roberts on Frauds. New-York, Riley & Co.

The American Spelling Book, or Youth's Instructor; with reading lessons, adapted to the capacities of children. Calculated to advance the learner by natural and easy gradations. Designed for the use of schools in the United States. By Job Plimpton.—Dedham, Herman Mann.

The Miseries of Human Life, or the groans of Samuel Sensitive and Timothy Testy; with a few supplementary sighs, from Mrs. Testy. In twelve dialogues. The first American, from the third London edition. 12mo. Boston, Belcher & Armstrong.

The Wonders of Creation, natural and artificial. By D. R. Preston, author of the Juvenile Instructor, &c. 2 vols. 12mo. $1. Boston, Dunham.

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PROPOSED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

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"The Æra of Missions." By Wm. Staughton, D.D. pastor of the first baptist church, Philadelphia. 8vo. $2 to subscribers, boards. Philadelphia.

Practical Observations on the treatment of Ulcers on the legs; considered as a branch of military surgery. To which are added, some observations on Varicose Veins, and Piles. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S. surgeon of the army at St. George's Hospital. 1 vol. 8vo. $1,50 in calf binding, to subscribers. New-London, Cady & Eells.

History of the Practice of Medicine, with additional notes and observations. Translated from the German of M. A. Weickardt, by Benjamin Schultz, M.D. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 300 each. $2 per vol. in boards. Philadelphia, John Conrad.

Letters of the late Lord Lyttleton, only son of the venerable George Lord Lyttleton, and chief justice of Eyre, &c. Two volumes complete in one. The first American, from the eighth London edition. To which will be added, a memoir concerning the author, including an account of some extraordinary circumstances attending his death.—8vo. between 260 and 300 pages, on fine wire-wove paper. Price to subscribers $1,75 in sheep, $2,25 in calf binding. Troy, N.Y. Wright, Goodenow, & Stockwell. Subscriptions for this work are received at the Anthology Office.

Lectures on the Elements of Chemistry. By Joseph Black, M.D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh. First American edition, with plates. 3 vols. 8vo. wove paper. Price $7 to subscribers. Philadelphia, Mathew Carey.

Major Thomas U. P. Carlton, attorney general of Georgia, is preparing for the press a work, to be entitled, "The Life of Major-General James Jackson, and a history of the Revolution in the State of Georgia."

STATEMENT OF DISEASES, &c. *from Nov. 20 to Dec. 20, 1806.*

THE atmospherick temperature, during the past month, has been milder than common. Although the range of the thermometer has been between 17° and 32°, during two or three days, yet, excepting these, it has been generally between 32 and 42°. Rains, alternated with fogs and fugitive snows, have given this month the aspect of April, rather than that of December. At this season the westerly winds gain a decided ascendency over those from the east. In our observations we have noted the wind nine times from easterly points, and twenty-five, westerly. The mildness of the weather is to be attributed to the prevalence of the west and south-west winds.

The sum of disease is not considerable. Simple *fever* has been disappearing. In its place we see *rheumatism*, severe *catarrh*, *inflammation of the fauces* and of the *lungs*. The latter complaint has been hitherto almost confined to children. A more formidable disease has also appeared, the *Scarlatina*. Of this, we have seen the varieties of, 1st, scarlatina simplex; 2d, ulcerated scarlet throat; 3d, scarlatina anginosa; and also an exanthema, differing from scarlatina simplex, in wanting the consecutive desquamation of the cuticle. Whether this last belong to the genus *scarlatina*, cannot at present be determined.—As this disease frequently ravages the whole country, and has lately been epidemick in different parts of it, probably it will prevail here. For which reason, it is proper to excite the attention of physicians and of the publick to that mode of practice, which has been recently adopted in England, and recommended to the world by high authorities. This practice consists in the application of cold or tepid water to the whole surface of the body. The application must not be made with a partial, nor sparing hand; it must be made thoroughly and universally. Dr. Curry relates, that, after making satisfactory experiments of its efficacy, he determined to employ it on his own children, should they be attacked by the disease. At this time the scarlet fever had appeared in the vicinity and proved fatal to several children. Soon after, it seized two of his boys, one five, the other three years of age. I shut myself up with these boys, says he; and with plenty of pump water and a pocket thermometer, prepared, not without anxiety, to combat this formidable disease. As soon as the sensation of heat was steady in my eldest boy, I stripped him naked, and poured four gallons of water over him, of the temperature of 64°. The usual good effects immediately appeared, but at the end of two hours he was as hot as ever. The remedy was again applied, and repeated as the return of heat indicated. By the time the eldest was ready for his third affusion, the youngest was ready for his first. In thirty-two hours, the first had the affusion fourteen times; eight times cold, twice cool, and four times tepid. Twelve affusions sufficed in the case of the youngest, of which seven were cold. The fever was in both completely subdued. The celebrated Dr. Gregory of *Edinburgh*, and many other learned physicians, give their full sanction to this practice. Whether there exist any circumstances in the character of the disease in this country, which is repugnant to this remedy, is to be decided by experience. The experiment ought to be made, if it is believed that former methods of treatment are inefficacious.* At the time the disease first appeared in this country, it was the fashion to evacuate the patient so thoroughly, as to leave but little vitality for the disease to consume. At another period, bark and wine were poured down, in all stages of the complaint; to extinguish the fire, they heaped on fuel. No wonder that the writers of that day relate, that, after the patients had been bled, puked, purged, sweated, blistered, and glystered, the unfortunates died. They tell us, that the successful method was at last discovered by Dr. Douglass of *Boston*. This consisted in keeping the patient in bed, in a moderate warmth; giving gentle diaphoretics, yet not so as to produce sweating, and a great plenty of *sage-tea*. In other words, Dr. Douglass gave nature a fair chance. —There is no doubt, that in some cases an emetic may be beneficial, at the commencement of the complaint, by giving such a shock to the system, as to break the thread of disease. Purgatives may certainly be employed, yet with great caution, in every stage of the disorder; and only so far, as to produce evacuations of fœcal matter, and diseased secretions. The treatment will often require varying in different years, according to the peculiar character of the disease, which ought therefore to be attentively studied.

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* During the cold season it may be proper to employ tepid water, at least in the first experiments.

Erratum.—In the present number, in the poetry headed "Erin," p. 643, for

While perfum'd breezes in the tree-tops
plays,—read
While perfum'd breezes in the tree-tops
played.

THE POLITICAL CABINET.

Registra in usum historiæ complectuntur principum edicta, senatuum decreta, judiciorum processus, orationes publice habitæ, epistolæ publice missæ, et similia, absque narrationis contextu, sive filo continuo.—Bacon de Aug. Sci.

In order to give a more durable value to our work than it has yet possessed, we propose to appropriate the eight pages, which in consequence of increased patronage we are enabled to add, to the publication of interesting American state papers, and generally of authenticated documents, having for their objects the history, statisticks, &c. of our country, to be published as an appendix to the Anthology, paged by itself, so that, if subscribers please, it may be bound as a separate volume.

MESSAGES
OF
THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

COMMUNICATION TO BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE FIRST SESSION OF THE NINTH CONGRESS, DECEMBER 3, 1805.

To the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives
of the United States of America.

AT a moment when the nations of Europe are in commotion and arming againſt each other, when thoſe with whom we have principal intercourſe are engaged in the general conteſt, and when the countenance of ſome of them towards our peaceable country, threatens that even that may not be unaffected by what is paſſing on the general theatre, a meeting of the repreſentatives of the nation, in both houſes of congreſs, has become more than uſually deſirable. Coming from every ſection of our country, they bring with them the ſentiments and the information of the whole, and will be enabled to give a direction to the publick affairs, which the will and the wiſdom of the whole will approve and ſupport. In taking a view of the ſtate of our country, we, in the firſt place, notice the late affliction of two of our cities, under the fatal fever, which in latter times has occaſionally viſited our ſhores. Providence, in his goodneſs, gave it an early termination on this occaſion, and leſſened the number of victims which have uſually fallen before it. In the courſe of the ſeveral viſitations by this diſeaſe, it has appeared to be ſtrictly local, incident to cities and on the tide waters only, incommunicable in the country, either by perſons under the diſeaſe, or by goods carried from diſeaſed places; that its acceſs is with the autumn, and it diſappears with the early froſts. Theſe reſtrictions, within narrow limits of time and ſpace, give ſecurity, even to our maritime cities, during three fourths of the year, and to the country always; although from theſe facts it appears unneceſſary, yet, to ſatisfy the fears of foreign nations, and cautions on their part are not to be complained of, in a danger whoſe limits are yet unknown to them, I have ſtrictly enjoined on the officers at the head of the cuſtoms to certify with exact truth, for every veſſel ſailing for a foreign port, the ſtate of health reſpecting this fever which prevails at the place from which ſhe ſails. Under every motive from character and duty to certify the truth, I have no doubt they have faithfully executed this injunction. Much real injury has however been ſuſtained from a propenſity to identify with this endemick, and to call by the ſame name, fevers of very different kinds, which have been known at all times and in all countries, and never have been placed among thoſe deemed contagious. As we advance in our knowledge of this diſeaſe, as facts develope the ſource from which individuals receive it, the ſtate authorities charged with the care of the publick health, and congreſs with that of the general commerce, will become able to regulate with effect their reſpective functions in theſe departments. The burthen of quarantines is felt at home as well as abroad; their efficacy merits examination. Although the health laws of the ſtates ſhould be found to need no preſent reviſal by Congreſs, yet commerce claims that their attention be ever awake to them.

Since our laſt meeting, the aſpect of our foreign relations has conſiderably changed. Our coaſts have been infeſted, and our harbours watched, by private armed veſſels, ſome of them without commiſſions, ſome with illegal commiſſions, others, with thoſe of legal form, but committing piratical acts beyond the authority of their commiſſions. They have captured in the very entrance of our harbours, as well as on the high ſeas, not only the veſſels of our friends, coming to trade with us, but our own alſo. They have carried them off under pretence of legal adjudication, but, not daring to approach a court of juſtice, they have plundered and ſunk them by the way, or in obſcure places, where no evidence could ariſe againſt them, maltreated the crews, and abandoned them in boats, in the open ſea, or on deſert ſhores, without food or covering. Theſe enormities, appearing to be unreached by any control of their ſovereigns, I found it neceſſary to equip a force, to cruize within our own ſeas, to arreſt all veſſels of theſe deſcriptions found hovering on our coaſts within the limits of the Gulf Stream, and to bring the offenders in for trial as pirates.

The ſame ſyſtem of hovering on our coaſts and harbours, under colour of ſeeking enemies, has been alſo carried on by publick armed ſhips, to the great annoyance and oppreſſion of our commerce. New principles too have been interpolated into the law of nations, founded neither in juſtice, nor the uſage or acknowledgment of nations. According to theſe, a belligerent takes to itſelf a commerce with its own enemy, which it denies to a neutral, on the ground of its aiding that enemy in the war. But reaſon revolts at ſuch an inconſiſtency; and the neutral, having equal right with the belligerent to decide the queſtion, the intereſts of our conſtituents, and the duty of maintaining the authority of reaſon, the only umpire between juſt nations, impoſe on us the obligation of providing an effectual and determined oppoſition to a doctrine ſo injurious to the rights of peaceable nations. Indeed the confidence we ought to have in the juſtice of others, ſtill countenances the hope, that a ſounder view of thoſe rights will of itſelf induce from every belligerent a more correct obſervance of them.

With Spain our negociations for a ſettlement of differences have not had a ſatisfactory iſſue. Spoliations during the former war, for which ſhe had formally acknowledged herſelf reſponſible, have been refuſed to be compenſated but on conditions affecting other claims in no wiſe connected with them. Yet the ſame practices are renewed in the preſent war, and are already of great amount. On the Mobile, our commerce, paſſing through that river, continues to be obſtructed by arbitrary duties and vexatious ſearches. Propoſitions for adjuſting amicably the boundaries of Louiſiana have not been acceded to. While however the right is unſettled, we have avoided changing the ſtate of things, by taking new poſts, or ſtrengthening ourſelves in the diſputed territories, in the hope that the other power would not by a contrary conduct, oblige us to meet their example, and endanger conflicts of authority, the iſſue of which may not be eaſily controlled. But in this hope we have now reaſon to leſſen our confidence. Inroads have been recently made into the territories of Orleans and the Miſſiſſippi. Our citizens have been ſeized and their property plundered in the very parts of the former which had been actually delivered up by Spain: and this by the regular officers and ſoldiers of that government. I have, therefore, found it neceſſary at length to give orders to our troops on that frontier, to be in readineſs to protect our citizens, and to repel by arms any ſimilar aggreſſions in future. Other details neceſſary for your full information of the ſtate of things between this country and that, ſhall be the ſubject of another communication.

In reviewing theſe injuries from ſome of the belligerent powers, the moderation, the firmneſs, and the wiſdom of the legiſlature will all be called into action. We ought ſtill to hope, that time and a more correct eſtimate of intereſt, as well as of character, will produce the juſtice we are bound to expect.

But ſhould any nation deceive itſelf by falſe calculations, and diſappoint that expectation, we muſt join in the unprofitable conteſt, of trying which party can do the other the moſt harm. Some of theſe injuries may perhaps admit a peaceable remedy. Where that is competent, it is always the moſt deſirable. But ſome of them are of a nature to be met by force only, and all of them may lead to it. I cannot therefore but recommend ſuch preparations as circumſtances call for. The firſt object is to place our ſea-port towns out of the danger of inſult. Meaſures have been already taken for furniſhing them with heavy cannon, for the ſervice of ſuch land batteries, as may make a part of their defence againſt armed veſſels approaching them. In aid of theſe, it is deſirable we ſhould have a competent number of gun-boats: and the number, to be competent, muſt be conſiderable. If immediately begun, they may be in readineſs for ſervice at the opening of the next ſeaſon. Whether it will be neceſſary to augment our land forces, will be decided by occurrences probably in the courſe of your ſeſſion. In the mean time, you will conſider, whether it would not be expedient, for a ſtate of peace as well as of war, ſo to organize or claſs the militia as would enable us, on a ſudden emergency, to call for the ſervices of the younger portions, unincumbered with the old and thoſe having families. Upwards of three hundred thouſand able bodied men, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-ſix years, which the laſt cenſus ſhews we may now count within our limits, will furniſh a competent number for offence or defence, in any point where they may be wanted, and will give time for raiſing regular forces, after the neceſſity of them ſhall become certain: and the reducing to the early period of life all its active ſervice, cannot but be deſirable to our younger citizens of the preſent, as well as future times; inaſmuch as it engages to them, in more advanced age, a quiet and undiſturbed repoſe in the boſom of their families. I cannot then but earneſtly recommend to your early conſideration, the expediency of ſo modifying our militia ſyſtem, as, by a ſeparation of the more active part from that which is leſs ſo, we may draw from it, when neceſſary, an efficient corps, fit for real and active ſervice, and to be called to it in regular rotation.

Conſiderable proviſion has been made under former authorities from Congreſs, of materials for the conſtruction of ſhips of war of 74 guns—theſe materials are on hand, ſubject to the further will of the legiſlature.

An immediate prohibition of the exportation of arms and ammunition is alſo ſubmitted to your determination.

Turning from theſe unpleaſant views of violence and wrong, I congratulate you on the liberation of our fellow citizens, who were ſtranded on the coaſts of Tripoli, and made priſoners of war. In a government bottomed on the will of all, the life and liberty of every individual citizen becomes intereſting to all. In the treaty therefore which has concluded our warfare with that ſtate, an article for the ranſom of our citizens has been agreed to. An operation by land by a ſmall band of our countrymen, and others engaged for the occaſion, in conjunction with the troops of the ex-baſhaw of that country, gallantly conducted by our late conſul Eaton, and their ſucceſsful enterprize on the city of Derne, contributed doubtleſs to the impreſſion which produced peace: and the concluſion of this prevented opportunities, of which the officers and men of our ſquadron deſtined for Tripoli would have availed themſelves to emulate the acts of valour exhibited by their brethren in the attack of the laſt year. Reflecting with high ſatisfaction on the diſtinguiſhed bravery, diſplayed whenever occaſions permitted in the late Mediterranean ſervice, I think it would be an uſeful encouragement, as well as a juſt reward, to make an opening for ſome preſent promotion, by enlarging our peace eſtabliſhment of captains and lieutenants.

With Tunis ſome miſunderſtandings have ariſen not yet ſufficiently explained; but friendly diſcuſſions with their ambaſſador, recently arrived, and a mutual diſpoſition to do whatever is juſt and reaſonable cannot fail of diſſipating theſe. So that we may conſider our peace, on that coaſt generally, to be on as ſound a footing as it has been at any preceding time. Still it will not be expedient to withdraw immediately the whole of our force from that ſea.

The law providing for a naval peace eſtabliſhment fixes the number of frigates, which ſhall be kept in conſtant ſervice in time of peace, and preſcribes that they ſhall be manned by not more than two-thirds of their compliment of ſeamen and ordinary ſeamen. Whether a frigate may be truſted to two-thirds only of her proper compliment of men, muſt depend on the nature of the ſervice on which ſhe is ordered; that may ſometimes for her ſafety, as well as to enſure her object, require her fulleſt compliment. In adverting to this ſubject, congreſs will perhaps conſider, whether the beſt limitation on the executive diſcretion in this caſe would not be, by the number of ſeamen which may be employed in the whole ſervice, rather than by the number of veſſels. Occaſions oftener ariſe for the employment of ſmall than of large veſſels, and it would leſſen riſk as well as expenſe to be authorized to employ them of preference; the limitation ſuggeſted by the number of ſeamen would admit a ſelection of veſſels beſt adapted to the ſervice.

Our Indian neighbours are advancing, many of them with ſpirit, and others beginning to engage, in the purſuits of agriculture and houſehold manufacture. They are becoming ſenſible that the earth yields ſubſiſtence with leſs labour and more certainty than the foreſt, and find it their intereſt from time to time to diſpoſe of parts of their ſurplus and waſte lands for the means of improving thoſe they occupy, and of ſubſiſting their families while they are preparing their farms. Since your laſt ſeſſion the northern tribes have ſold to us the lands between the Connecticut reſerve and the former Indian boundary; and thoſe on the Ohio, from the ſame boundary to the Rapids and for a conſiderable depth inland. The Chickaſaws and Cherokees have ſold us the country between, and adjacent to, the two diſtricts of Tenneſſee; and the Creeks the reſidue of their lands in the fork of Ocmulgee, up to the Ulcoſauhatche. The three former purchaſes are important, inaſmuch as they conſolidate disjoined parts of our ſettled country, and rende[illegible] intercourſe ſecure; and the ſecond particularly ſo, as, with the ſmall point [illegible]iver, which we expect is by this time ceded by the Piankeſhaws, it com[illegible]ur poſſeſſion of the whole of both banks of the Ohio, from its ſource to ne[illegible]mouth, and the navigation of that river is thereby rendered forever ſafe to our citizens ſettled and ſettling on its extenſive waters. The purchaſe from the Creeks too has been for ſome time peculiarly intereſting to the ſtate of Georgia.

The ſeveral treaties which have been mentioned will be ſubmitted to both houſes of congreſs for the exerciſe of their reſpective functions.

Deputations now on their way to the ſeat of government, from various nations of Indians, inhabiting the Miſſouri and other parts beyond the Miſſiſſippi, come charged with aſſurances of their ſatisfaction with the new relations in which they are placed with us, of their diſpoſitions to cultivate our peace and friendſhip, and their deſire to enter into commercial intercourſe with us.

A ſtate of our progreſs in exploring the principal rivers of that country, and of the information reſpecting them hitherto obtained, will be communicated as ſoon as we ſhall receive ſome further relation, which we have reaſon ſhortly to expect.

The receipts at the treaſury, during the year ending on the 30th day of September laſt, have exceeded the ſum of thirteen millions of dollars, which, with not quite five millions in the treaſury at the beginning of the year, have enabled us, after meeting other demands, to pay nearly two millions of the debt contracted under the Britiſh treaty and convention, upwards of four millions of principal of the publick debt, and four millions of intereſt. Theſe payments, with thoſe which had been made in three years and half preceding, have extinguiſhed of the funded debt nearly eighteen millions of principal.

Congreſs, by their act of November 10, 1803, authoriſed us to borrow 1,750,000 dollars towards meeting the claims of our citizens, aſſumed by the convention with France. We have not however made uſe of this authority: becauſe the ſum of four millions and an half, which remained in the treaſury on the ſame 30th day of September laſt, with the receipts which we may calculate on for the enſuing year, beſides paying the annual ſum of eight millions of dollars, appropriated to the funded debt, and meeting all the current demands which may be expected, will enable us to pay the whole ſum of three millions ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand dollars, aſſumed by the French convention, and ſtill leave us a ſurplus of nearly a million of dollars at our free diſpoſal. Should you concur in the proviſions of arms and armed veſſels recommended by the circumſtances of the times, this ſurplus will furniſh the means of doing ſo.

On this firſt occaſion of addreſſing congreſs, ſince, by the choice of my conſtitu-

[illegible], I have entered on a ſecond term of adminiſtration, I embrace the opportunity to give this publick aſſurance that I will exert my beſt endeavours to adminiſter faithfully the executive department, and will zealouſly co-operate with you in every meaſure which may tend to ſecure the liberty, property, and perſonal ſafety of our fellow citizens, and to conſolidate the republican forms and principles of our government.

In the courſe of your ſeſſion, you ſhall receive all the aid which I can give for the diſpatch of the publick buſineſs, and all the information neceſſary for your deliberations, of which the intereſts of our own country and the confidence repoſed in us by others, will admit a communication.

TH : JEFFERSON.

Dec. 3, 1805.

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A REPORT FROM THE GOVERNOUR, AND PRESIDING JUDGE OF THE TERRITORY OF MICHIGAN, RELATIVE TO THE STATE OF THAT TERRITORY. TRANSMITTED BY THE PRESIDENT, DEC. 23, 1805.

To the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives
of the United States of America.

THE governour and preſiding judge of the territory of Michigan have made a report to me of the ſtate of that territory, ſeveral matters in which being within the reach of the legiſlative authority only, I lay the report before congreſs.

TH : JEFFERSON.

December 23, 1805.

(COPY.)

Detroit, October 10, 1805.

THE governour of the territory of Michigan and the preſiding judge thereof, in compliance with the wiſhes of the government and the people of the territory, have the honour to make the following report relative to the affairs of the territory.

By the act of the congreſs of the United States eſtabliſhing the territory, the government thereof was to commence from and after the thirtieth day of June, one thouſand eight hundred five. The preſiding judge arrived at Detroit, the ſeat of the government, on Saturday the 29th day of June, and the governour on Monday the firſt day of July. The aſſociate judge, who was previouſly a reſident of the territory, was already there. On Tueſday the 2d July, the governour, in purſuance of the ordinance of congreſs, adminiſtered to the ſeveral officers their reſpective oaths of office, and on the ſame day the operations of the government commenced.

It was the unfortunate fate of the new government, to commence its operations in a ſcene of the deepeſt publick and private calamity. By the conflagration of Detroit, which took place on the morning of the 11th of June, all the buildings of that place, both publick and private, were entirely conſumed ; and the moſt valuable part of the perſonal property of the inhabitants, was loſt. On the arrival of the new government, a part of the people were found encamped on the publick grounds, in the vicinity of the town, and the remainder were diſperſed through the neighbouring ſettlements of the country ; both on the Britiſh and the American ſide of the boundary.

The place which bore the appellation of the *town of Detroit*, was a ſpot of about two acres of ground, completely covered with buildings, and combuſtible materials, the narrow intervals of fourteen or fifteen feet, uſed as ſtreets or lanes, only excepted ; and the whole was environed with a very ſtrong and ſecure defence of tall and ſolid picquets. The circumjacent ground, the bank of the river alone excepted, was a wide common ; and though aſſertions are made reſpecting the exiſtence, among the records of Quebec, of a charter from the king of France, confirming this common as an appurtenance to the town, it was either the property of the United States, or at leaſt ſuch as individual claims did not pretend to cover. The folly of attempting to rebuild the town in the original mode was obvious to every mind ; yet there exiſted no authority, either in the country, or in the officers of the new government, to diſpoſe of the adjacent ground. Hence had already ariſen a ſtate of diſſention which urgently required the interpoſition of ſome authority to quiet. Some of the inhabitants, deſtitute of ſhelter, and hopeleſs of any prompt arrangements of government, had reoccupied their former ground, and a few buildings had already been erected in the midſt of the old ruins. Another portion of the inhabitants had determined to take poſſeſſion of the adjacent publick ground, and to throw themſelves on the liberality of the government of the United States, either to make them a donation of the ground as a compenſation for their ſufferings, or to accept of a very moderate price for it. If they could have made any arrangement of the various pretenſions of individuals, or could have agreed on any plan of a town, they would ſoon have begun to build. But the want of a civil authority to decide interfering claims, or to compel the refractory to ſubmit to the wiſhes of a majority, had yet prevented them from carrying any particular meaſure into execution. On the morning of Monday the firſt day of July, the inhabitants had aſſembled, for the purpoſe of reſolving on ſome definitive mode of procedure. The judges prevailed on them to defer their intentions for a ſhort time, giving them aſſurances that the governour of the territory would ſhortly arrive, and that every arrangement, in the power of their domeſtick government, would be made for their relief. On theſe repreſentations they conſented to defer their meaſures for one fortnight. In the evening of the ſame day the governour arrived : It was his firſt meaſure to prevent any encroachments from being made on the publick land. The ſituation of the diſtreſſed inhabitants then occupied the attention of the members of the government for two or three days. The reſult of theſe diſcuſſions was, to proceed to lay out a new town, embracing the whole of the old town, and the publick lands adjacent ; to ſtate to the people that nothing in the nature of a title could be given, under any authorities then poſſeſſed by the government ; and that they could not be juſtified in holding out any charitable donations whatever, as a compenſation for their ſufferings ; but that every perſonal exertion would be uſed to obtain a confirmation of the arrangements about to be made, and to obtain the liberal attention of the government of the United States to their diſtreſſes.

A town was accordingly ſurveyed and laid out, and the want of authority to impart any regular title, without the ſubſequent ſanction of congreſs, being firſt impreſſed, and clearly underſtood, the lots were expoſed to ſale under that reſervation. Where the purchaſer of a lot was a proprietor in the old town, he was at liberty to extinguiſh his former property in his new acquiſition, foot for foot, and was expected to pay only for the ſurplus, at the rate expreſſed in his bid. A conſiderable part of the inhabitants were only tenants in the old town, there being no means of acquiring any new titles. The ſale of courſe could not be confined merely to *former proprietors* but as far as poſſible, was confined to *former inhabitants*. After the ſale of a conſiderable part, by auction, the remainder was diſpoſed of by private contract, deducting from the previous ſales the baſis of the terms. As ſoon as the neceſſities of the immediate inhabitants were accommodated, the ſales were entirely ſtopped until the pleaſure of government could be conſulted. As no title could be made, or was pretended to be made, no payments were required, or any monies permitted to be received until the expiration of one year, to afford time for congreſs to interpoſe. The remaining part was ſtipulated to be paid in four ſucceſſive annual inſtalments. The higheſt ſum reſulting from the bids was ſeven cents, for a ſquare foot, and the whole averaged at leaſt four cents. In this way the inhabitants were fully ſatisfied to commence their buildings, and the interfering pretenſions of all individuals were eventually reconciled. The *validity* of any of the titles was not taken into view. The *poſſeſſion* under the titles, ſuch as they were, was alone regarded, and the validity of title left to await the iſſue of ſuch meaſures as congreſs might adopt, relative to landed titles in the territory of Michigan *generally*. It therefore now remains for the congreſs of the United States either to refuſe a ſanction of the arrangement made, or by imparting a regular authority to make it, or in ſome other mode in their wiſdom deemed proper, to relieve the inhabitants from one of the moſt immediate diſtreſſes, occaſioned by the calamitous conflagration.

Strongly impreſſed with a ſenſe of the worth of the people, and deeply commiſerating their ſufferings, of a great part of which they were eye witneſſes, the officers of their local government cannot refrain from adding their warmeſt degree of recommendation to forward the liberality the congreſs of the United States will unqueſtionably be inclined to exerciſe towards them; and the diſpoſition which will doubtleſs prevail towards attaching their affections, promoting their intereſts, and relieving their diſtreſs. Whether a donation of the acquiſitions which have been ſtated, or of lands more remote, or the application of the proceeds to publick purpoſes within the country, will be moſt adviſable, the underſigned pretend not to ſay; but whatever relief may be extended to them on the part of the general government, they heſitate not to aſſert, will be of the moſt eſſential utility to them, and rendered to objects of real merit.

The organization of the courts of juſtice next demanded conſideration. A judicial ſyſtem was eſtabliſhed on principles of convenience, economy, and ſimplicity. Courts were held under it, and all the exiſting buſineſs ſettled. Every ſubject requiring to be legiſlated upon was acted on, as far as the government was competent to act. At the cloſe of the other arrangements, the militia of the territory were completely organized and brought into the field.

The various acts, both of a legiſlative and executive deſcription, will appear at large in the ſemiannual report of them, which the laws of the United States require, and it will therefore be unneceſſary to exhibit the details of them.

The grand juries conſtantly preſented addreſſes to the courts on the ſubject of their land titles. The ſeveral companies of militia, elected delegates to a general meeting, which, among other objects, addreſſed the government on the ſubject of their titles; and earneſtly requeſted the perſonal attendance of the governour and one of the judges, during a part of the ſeſſion of congreſs. Indeed the confuſed ſituation of land titles, during the nine or ten years the United States have had poſſeſſion of the country, has been ſuch, and is ſo increaſing by lapſe of time, as now loudly to call for a definitive adjuſtment.

It is now nearly a century and a half ſince the firſt ſettlements were made in this country, under the French government, and in the reign of Louis the fourteenth, whoſe name it then bore, in common with what has ſince excluſively been termed Louiſiana. In 1678, an officer, commiſſioned by the French government, explored the waters of the weſt; taking his departure from lake Michigan, he penetrated to the Ouiſconſin river, and afterwards to the Miſſiſſippi, and returned through the Illinois country, after having failed down the Miſſiſſippi within one degree of latitude of the ſouthern boundary of the United States, previous to the late treaty of Paris, of April, 1803, and that anteriour to the diſcovery of the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi by La Salle. Prior to this era the ſettlements of the ſtraight had commenced, and Detroit claims an antiquity of fifteen years ſuperiour to the city of Philadelphia. The few titles granted by the government of France were of three French acres in front, on the banks of the river, by forty in depth, ſubject to the feudal and ſeignoral conditions, which uſually accompained titles in France. The ancient French code called *la coutûme de Paris* was the eſtabliſhed law of the country; and the rights of land were made ſtrictly conformable to it. All theſe grants, however, required the grantee, in a limited period, to obtain a confirmation from the king; and, with the exception of a very few, this confirmation has never been made. On the conqueſt of the French poſſeſſions by Great-Britain, in the war which terminated by the treaty of Paris in the year 1763, as well in original articles of capitulation in 1759 and in 1760, as in the ſubſequent treaty itſelf, the property of the inhabitants of the country is confined to them. The expreſſion in the original is, *leurs biens, nobles et ignobles, meubles et immeubles*. It is therefore conceived to comprehend theſe *lands*. On the acquiſition by the United States of America of that portion of Canada which is now comprehended within the limits of the territory of Michigan, by the definitive treaty of peace, at Paris, in 1783, the ſubjects of his Britannick majeſty are ſecured from loſs, or damage in perſon, liberty, or property, and in the treaty of London, negociated between Mr. Jay and lord Grenville, in November, 1794, they are ſtill more particularly confirmed in their property of every kind, land, houſes, or effects. However defective, therefore, the claſs of original proprietors may be, with reſpect to the *evidence* of title according to the American forms, it is conceived their *rights* are extremely ſtrong. The Britiſh government granted few titles, and theſe were generally mere permiſſions of military officers to uſe or occupy certain pieces of land, often unaccompanied with any written evidences, but aſſuming, from long continued poſſeſſion, an appearance of right. Under the American government no titles of any kind have been granted.

From this ſtate of things ſome conſequences have reſulted, which are not indeed difficult to foreſee, but which it is difficult to remedy. One of theſe conſequences, and perhaps not the leaſt important, is the effect it has had on the deſtiny and moral character of the progeny of the original coloniſts. When it is remembered, that the troops of Louis the fourteenth, came without women, the deſcription of perſons conſtituting the ſecond generation will not be difficult to conceive. When it is conſidered at the ſame time, that deſtitute of titles to land, they were precluded from the means of acquiring them, it will be obvious that an entrance into the ſavage ſocieties, or at moſt employments in the commerce carried on with them, were their only reſources. While, therefore, the American colonizations of the ſame, and of ſubſequent date, have grown into regular, agricultural, and opulent ſtates, theſe countries have been deſtined to anarchy, to ignorance, to poverty. The emigrant, whom curioſity, or enterpriſe, at any time brought into the country, was either attracted to the Britiſh ſide of it, or diſappeared in ſome mode leſs eaſy to account for. Acceſſion, by foreign population, and by natural increaſe, being thus, at once cut off, the fate of this fine region has neceſſarily been that inſignificance which ſtill belongs to it. The Britiſh government, in recent periods, have confirmed original proprietors, made a donation of a quantity equal to the original grant, termed a *continuation*; and have granted lands to ſettlers without any other price than common fees of office attending the acquiſition of the grant. Such, however, is the ineſtimable value of liberty to man, that notwithſtanding theſe, and, if poſſible, greater inducements to the ſettlers, the underſigned venture to predict a marked ſuperiority to the American ſide, even at the prices at preſent required by the American government, or a ſlight variation of them, if the old claims are at once adjuſted, and the country laid open to the acquiſition of new title.

From the ſtate of the country which has been repreſented, another conſequence has reſulted. Encroachments, in ſome inſtances, grafted on original title, and in others without a ſemblance of title, have been made on lands which are or ought to be, the property of the United States. Individuals have proceeded to extinguiſh the native right, contrary to the regulations of all the governments; and in ſome inſtances extenſive ſettlements have been made on titles thus acquired. What arrangements the United States will make on this head it belongs not to us to anticipate; we ſhall only recommend a liberal and merciful diſpoſition to the people of this country; of whom it may be ſafely aſſerted they are leſs to be charged with depravity of character, than their governments have been with cruel neglect and indifference.

The claims of the preſent inhabitants require to be conſidered under one more aſpect, novel indeed, but not the leſs founded in truth. When the Amerrican comes into contact with the aborignal, if he is not conſidered as an enemy, he is at leaſt regarded as a character with whom they are to ſtruggle, and,if in no other; certainly in a pecuniary view. But the Canadian, allied by blood, by long eſtabliſhed intercourſe, by a countleſs reciprocity of ſervices, their native claims having long, as to time, been extinguiſhed,and their honour and good faith having been repeatedly pledged for his protection, is uniformly regarded as their brother, and with him they are diſpoſed to make a common cauſe. Hence *juſtice*, and *liberal juſtice*, to the Canadian inhabitant is an important point of policy in the conduct of the American government towards the aboriginal inhabitants.

The extent of the Canadian extinguiſhment of Indian title, though in itſelf indefinite, appears firſt to have received limits in the treaty of fort Mac Intoſh, in 1785. We there firſt find a written dereliction of Indian claim for a breadth of ſix miles from La Riviere aux Raiſins, now called Roſine, on lake Erie, to the lake St. Clair. In the ſubſequent treaty of fort Harmar in 1789, the ſame dereliction is confirmed. In the ulterior treaty of Greenville, in 1795, the confirmation is repeated; and additions made.

The treaty with Great Britain, of 1783, and the ſubſequent one of 1794, were made for the accompliſhment of great national objects, having very little connection with Canadian and Indian claims. The treaties of fort Mac Intoſh, fort Harmar, and of Greenville, were all formed on other far more important points; and the quantity of extinguiſhed Indian title in Michigan recognized by them is leſs to be conſidered as *an acquiſition of new title*, than *a definition of the old.* The expenſe of theſe negociations therefore can ſcarcely be ſaid, in any ſenſe, to attach to this country; and perhaps it may be truly ſaid that all the Indian title at preſent extinguiſhed within the territory of Michigan has not coſt the United States a ſingle dollar; but is entirely a recognition of a previous, but indefinite title, extinguiſhed by the Canadians. Hence a queſtion will ariſe, whether it is more than *barely juſtice* to the inhabitants to allow them the whole of this part, or otherwiſe to permit the proceeeds of it to be applied to their benefit,in the education of their youth, in the erection of publick buildings, ſuch as court houſes and jails, which the late conflagration has entirely deprived them of, and in laying out roads, and other improvements in their country. Next to the adjuſtment of the old titles comes the acquiſition of new. It is believed that at this period, and in a particular mode, a very large portion of Indian title may be ſhortly extinguiſhed; but as this part of the ſubject may hereafter be deemed confidential, it is made the ſubject of a diſtinct report.

On an occaſion like the preſent it may not be unadviſable to reviſe ſome of the regulations relative to the territory.

On all the ſubjects requiring legiſlation the preſent government act with difficulty, and on many cannot act at all. All laws will be found to operate on particular *places*, *times*, and *perſons*; and in no ſtate, which enters into the compoſition of the American union, will an abſtract code of principles be diſcovered free from a connection, and that a very cloſe one, with the *places*, *times*, and *perſons* affected by them. Hence the ſtrict *adoption* of any code, or even of any one law,becomes impoſſible. To make it applicable it muſt be adapted to the geography of the country, to its temporary circumſtances and exigencies, and to the particular character of the perſons over whom it is to operate. Hitherto it has been religiouſly the object to follow what has been deemed the ſubſtance of the law, whatever modifications the form of it was obliged to undergo. But different minds will not always correſpond in ſentiment on what is *ſubſtance*, and what is *form*; and in all the litigations which ariſe under laws, thoſe affecting the validity of the law itſelf are the moſt intricate and difficult. Hence, in a country whoſe adminiſtration ought to be marked with ſimplicity, intricacy, procraſtination, and uncertainty in affairs, reſult. To adopt laws from all the original ſtates, the laws of all the original ſtates ought to be furniſhed ; and waving the difficulty and expenſe of procuring them, what body of men, under the preſſure of immediate buſineſs, can acquire a complete acquaintance with them ? The poſſeſſion of all the codes, if it were poſſible, and a complete aquaintance with their contents, would ſtill prove an abortive cure ; for, in many very ſimple caſes, a ſtrict precedent will be ſearched for in vain. Is the object to eſtabliſh a ferry, to regulate the affairs of any diſtrict, to erect a court houſe, or to inſtitute a ſchool, however urgent the call, however obvious the means, it muſt often be abandoned for want of a precedent that will apply ; and often when attempted, may be defeated, from the want of a ſtrict correſpondence between the law made and the precedent from which it profeſſes to be adopted ? The real ſecurity for the prevalence of republican principles reſts not in a proviſion of this awkward kind ; for even in the codes of the ſtates the diſciple of ariſtocracy may ſometimes find a weapon. It reſts in the general probability that the adminiſtrations of this deſcription will be conformable to the general adminiſtration. It reſts in the parental control of congreſs. Experience is the beſt teſt of the propriety or impropriety of a law, and if a law be made which gives diſſatisfaction, the natural reſort is to the authority firſt making for its correction, and when, from defect of power or of inclination, the evil is found irremediable by them, to ſuperiour authority.

The requiring a poſſeſſion of certain quantities of land in various officers is not only impracticable in the preſent inſtance ; but the policy on which the proviſion may have originally been grounded has ceaſed to exiſt.

The ſouthern boundary of the territory is indefinite. Though in the preſent maps of the United States, a line of latitude through the ſouthern bend of lake Michigan appears to ſtrike lake Erie near the mouth of the Miami, yet in the maps of Arrowſmith and M'Kenſie, ſuch a line of latitude would not ſtrike lake Erie, but paſs entirely ſouth of it. The anxiety of the ſouthern ſettlers of the territory is great, not to be attached to the ſtate of Ohio, which would be incommodious to them, but to Michigan, which is ſo much more convenient. The weſtern end of lake Erie even from Sanduſky would feel this convenience.

The caſe of the Wiandot Indians deſerves the conſideration of government. They live in two towns, Maguaga and Brown's town, within the limits of the American title. To the treaty of fort Harmar a clauſe was annexed ſtipulating that they might remain unmoleſted. In the treaty of Greenville this proviſion is omitted. They conſtantly aſſert, and there are not wanting reputable citizens who join them in the aſſertion, that they were ſolemnly promiſed by general Wayne a continuance of the indulgence. It may therefore be worthy of ſerious conſideration, whether it may not be adviſable in the adjuſtment of titles to recogniſe their poſſeſſions, and inveſt them with the character of citizens.

(Signed) WILLIAM HULL, Governour of the Territory of Michigan.

(Signed) A. B. WOODWARD, Preſiding Judge of do.

DOCUMENTS AND PAPERS RELATIVE TO COMPLAINTS BY THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE, AGAINST THE COMMERCE CARRIED ON BY AMERICAN CITIZENS IN THE FRENCH ISLAND OF ST. DOMINGO.

To the Senate of the United States.

IN compliance with the requeſt of the ſenate, expreſſed in their reſolution of Dec. 27, I now lay before them ſuch documents and papers (there being no other information in my poſſeſſion) as relate to complaints by the government of France, againſt the commerce carried on by the citizens of the United States to the French iſland of St. Domingo.

January 10*th*, 1806. TH. JEFFERSON.

From General TURREAU *to the Secretary of State.*

October 14, 1805.

THE underſigned miniſter plenipotentiary of his imperial and royal majeſty, to his excellency the preſident of the United States of America, has teſtified, in his converſation with the ſecretary of ſtate, his juſt diſcontent with the commercial relations, which many citizens of different ſtates of the union maintain with the rebels of every colour, who have momentarily withdrawn the colony of St. Domingo from the legal authority.

The principles injuriouſly affected by ſuch a commerce, or rather by ſuch a ſyſtem of robbery (brigandage) are ſo evident, ſo generally acknowledged, and adopted not only by all nations, who have a colonial ſyſtem to defend, but even by thoſe who have none: and moreover even by every wiſe people to whatſoever political aggregation they may belong; that the ſtateſman, if he has not loſt every idea of juſtice, of humanity, and of publick law, can no more conteſt their wiſdom, than their exiſtence. And certainly the underſigned, in finding himſelf called by his duty, as well as by his inclination, in the boſom of a friendly people, and near the reſpectable chief who directs its government; certainly the underſigned ought not to have expected that his firſt political relations would have for their object a complaint ſo ſerious, an infraction ſo manifeſt of law, the moſt ſacred, and the beſt obſerved by every nation under the dominion of civilization.

But it was not enough for ſome citizens of the United States to convey munitions of every kind to the rebels of St. Domingo, to that race of African ſlaves, the reproach, and the refuſe of nature; it was moreover neceſſary to inſure the ſucceſs of this ignoble and criminal traffick by the uſe of force. The veſſels deſtined to protect it are conſtructed, loaded, armed, in all the ports of the union, under the eyes of the American people, of its particular authority, and of the federal government itſelf; and this government which has taken for the baſis of its political career the moſt ſcrupulous equity, and the moſt impartial neutrality, does not forbid it.

Without doubt, and notwithſtanding the profound conſideration with which the miniſter plenipotentiary of the French empire is penetrated for the government of the union; he might enlarge ſtill farther upon the reflections ſuggeſted by ſuch a ſtate of things, a circumſtance ſo important, ſo unexpected. But it would be equally as afflicting for him to dwell upon it, to ſtate its conſequences, as it would be for the government to hear them.

The ſecretary of ſtate, who perfectly knows the juſtice of the principles, and the legitimacy of the rights referred to in this note, will be of opinion that neither are ſuſceptible of diſcuſſion; becauſe a principle univerſally aſſented to, a right generally eſtabliſhed, is never diſcuſſed, or at leaſt is diſcuſſed in vain. The only way open for the redreſs of theſe complaints is to put an end to the tolerance which produces them, and which daily aggravates theſe conſequences.

Moreover this note, founded upon facts not leſs evident than the principles which they infract, does not permit the underſigned to doubt that the government of the U. States will take the moſt prompt, as well as the moſt effectual prohibitory meaſures, in order to put an end to its cauſe; and he ſeizes with eagerneſs this occaſion of renewing to the ſecretary of ſtate, the aſſurance of his high conſideration. (Signed) TURREAU.

Faithfully tranſlated.

J. WAGNER, *Chief Clerk, Department State.*

General TURREAU, *Miniſter Plenipotentiary of his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, to Mr.* MADISON, *Secretary of State.*

Waſhington, 2d Jan. 1806.

SIR—Formal orders of my government oblige me to inſiſt upon the contents of my official note, of the 14th of October, relative to the commerce, which ſome inhabitants of the United States maintain with the rebels of St. Domingo,

Not receiving any anſwer to that note, I had room to hope, that the government of the union would take prompt and effectual meaſures to put an end to the cauſes which produced it; but your ſilence towards me, eſpecially in relation to St. Domingo, and that of your government towards congreſs, impoſes upon me the duty of recalling to your recollection the ſaid official note, and of renewing to you my complaints upon the tolerance given to an abuſe, as ſhocking, as contrary to the law of nations, as it is to the treaty of peace and friendſhip exiſting between France and the United States.

I will not return, ſir, to the different circumſtances which have attended the commerce with the revolted part of St. Domingo, to the ſcandalous publicity given to its ſhameful ſucceſs; to the rewards and encomiums proſtituted upon the crews of armed veſſels, whoſe deſtination is to protect the voyages, to carry munitions of every kind to the rebels, and thus to nouriſh rebellion and robbery.

You ought not to be ſurpriſed, ſir, that I call anew the attention of the American government to this ſubject.—His excellency Mr. Talleyrand has already teſtified his diſcontent to Gen. Armſtrong, your miniſter plenipotentiary at Paris; and you will be of opinion, that it is at length time to purſue formal meaſures againſt every adventure to the ports of St. Domingo occupied by the rebels. The ſyſtem of tolerance which produces this commerce, which ſuffers its being armed, which encourages by impunity its extenſion and its exceſs, cannot longer remain; and the emperour and king my maſter, expects from the dignity and the candour of the government of the union, that an end will be put to it promptly.

I add to this diſpatch a copy of the official note, which has already been tranſmitted to you. I earneſtly requeſt, that you acknowledge the receipt of both, and receive anew aſſurances of my high conſideration.

(Signed) TURREAU,

Faithfully tranſlated.
J. WAGNER, *Chief Clerk, Department of State.*

From Mr. TALLEYRAND *to Gen.* ARMSTRONG, *without date, but received in Gen. Armſtrong's letter to the Secretary of State, of* 10*th Aug.* 1805.

SIR—I have ſeveral times had the honour to call your attention to the commerce carried on from the ports of the United States to thoſe of St. Domingo occupied by the rebels. Theſe commercial communications would appear to be almoſt daily increaſed. In order to cover their true deſtination, the veſſels are cleared for the Weſt Indies, without a more particular deſignation of the place, and with the aid of theſe commiſſions, proviſions, arms, and other objects of ſupply, of which they ſtand in need, are carried to the rebels of St. Domingo.

Although theſe adventures may be no more than the reſult of private ſpeculations, the government of the United States is not the leſs engaged to put an end to them, by a conſequence of the obligations which bind together all the civilized powers, all thoſe who are in a ſtate of peace. No government can ſecond the ſpirit of revolt of the ſubjects of another power; and, as in this ſtate of things, it cannot maintain communications with them, it ought not to favour thoſe which its own ſubjects maintain.

It is impoſſible, that the government of the United States ſhould longer ſhut its eyes upon the communications of their commerce with St. Domingo. The adventures for that iſland are making with a ſcandalous publicity. They are ſupported by armed veſſels ; at their return, feaſts are given, in order to vaunt the ſucceſs of their ſpeculations ; and the acknowledgment, even the eulogies of the government are ſo much relied upon,that it is at theſe feaſts,and in the midſt of an immenſe concourſe, where are found the firſt authorities of the country, that the principles of the government of Haiti are celebrated,and that vows are made for its duration.

I have the honour, ſir, to tranſmit to your excellency an extract of an American journal, in which are contained ſundry details of a feaſt, given in the port of New York, on board of a convoy which had arrived from St. Domingo.

The ninth toaſt,given to the government of Haiti, cannot fail to excite your indignation. It is not, after having covered every thing with blood and with ruins, that the rebels of St. Domingo ought to have found apologiſts in a nation, the friend of France.

But they do not ſtop at their firſt ſpeculations. The company of merchants, which gave a feaſt on the return of their adventure, is preparing a ſecond convoy, and propoſe to place it under the eſcort of ſeveral armed veſſels.

I have the honour, ſir, to give you this information, in order that you may be pleaſed to call the moſt ſerious attention of your government towards a ſeries of facts, which it becomes its dignity and candour no longer to permit. The federal government, cannot ſo far ſeparate itſelf from the inhabitants of the United States, as to permit to them acts and communications, which it thinks itſelf bound to interdict to itſelf ; or, as to think that it can diſtinguiſh its own reponſibility from that of its ſubjects, when there is in queſtion an unparalleled revolt,whoſe circumſtances and whoſe horrible conſequences muſt alarm all nations, and who are all equally intereſted in ſeeing it ceaſe.

France ought to expect from the amity of the United States, and his majeſty charges me, ſir, to requeſt in his name, that they interdict every private adventure, which, under any pretext or deſignation whatſoever, may be deſtined to the ports of St. Domingo, occupied by the rebels.

Receive, General, the aſſurances of my high conſideration.

(Signed) CH. M. TALLEYRAND.

To his Excellency General Armſtrong,
Miniſter Plenipotentiary of the U. States.

Faithfully tranſlated.
J. WAGNER, *Chief Clerk, Department State.*

From Mr. TALLEYRAND *to General* ARMSTRONG.

Paris, 29th Thermidor, 13th year, (16th Auguſt, 1805.)

SIR—Since the letter I had the honour to write to you on the 2d Thermidor, concerning the armaments which were making in the ports of the United States, for the weſtern parts of St. Domingo, freſh information upon this point confirms every thing which had been received. The adventures to St. Domingo are publickly made ; veſſels are armed for war to protect the convoys ; and it is in virtue of contracts, entered into between Deſſalines and American merchants, that the latter ſend him ſupplies and munitions of war.

I add, ſir, to the letter I have the honour to write to you, a copy of a ſentence given at Halifax in the matter of a merchant of New-York, who had conveyed into the revolted part of St. Domingo, three cargoes of gun powder, and who was taken on his return by an Engliſh frigate.

If even in the Engliſh tribunal, where this prize was condemned, the whole iſland of St. Domingo was conſidered as a French colony, how can the federal government tolerate that the rebels of this colony ſhould continue to receive from America ſuccours againſt the parent country? It is impoſſible that that government ſhould be ignorant of the armaments making in its ports. Too much publicity is given to them, not to render it reaſonable, and it ought to perceive that it is contrary to every ſyſtem of peace and good friendſhip to ſuffer longer, in its ports, armaments evidently directed againſt France.

Without doubt the federal government would not wiſh, in order to favour certain private ſpeculations, to give new facilities to rebellion and robbery (brigandage); and tolerance of a commerce ſo ſcandalous would be unworthy of it. Neither your government nor his majeſty can be any longer indifferent to it; and as the ſeriouſneſs of the facts, which occaſion this complaint, obliges his majeſty to conſider as good prize every thing which ſhall enter the port of St. Domingo, occupied by the rebels, and every thing coming out, he perſuades himſelf, that the government of the United States will take, on its part, againſt this commerce, at once illicit and contrary to all the principles of the law of nations, all the repreſſive and authoritative meaſures proper to put an end to it. This ſyſtem of impunity and tolerance* can no longer continue; and his majeſty is convinced, that your government will think it due from its frankneſs promptly to put an end to it.

Receive, ſir, the aſſurances of my high conſiderations.

(Signed) CH. M. TALLEYRAND.

To his Excellency General Armſtrong.

Faithfully tranſlated.
J. WAGNER, *Chief Clerk Department State.*

THE VIOLATION OF NEUTRAL RIGHTS, THE DEPREDATIONS ON THE COLONIAL TRADE, AND IMPRESSMENTS OF AMERICAN SEAMEN.

To the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States.

IN my meſſage to both Houſes of Congreſs, at the opening of their preſent ſeſſion, I ſubmitted to their attention, among other ſubjects, the oppreſſion of our commerce and navigation by the irregular practices of armed veſſels, publick and private, and by the introduction of new principles, derogatory of the rights of neutrals, and unacknowledged by the uſage of nations.

The memorials of ſeveral bodies of merchants of the United States are now communicated, and will develope theſe principles and practices, which are producing the moſt ruinous effects on our lawful commerce and navigation.

The right of a neutral to carry on commercial intercourſe with every part of the dominions of a belligerent, permitted by the laws of the country (with the exception of blockaded ports, and contraband of war) was believed to have been decided between Great-Britain and the United States, by the ſentence of their commiſſioners, mutually appointed to decide on that and other queſtions of difference between the two nations; and by the actual payment of the damages awarded by them againſt Great-Britain, for the infractions of that right. When, therefore, it was perceived that the ſame principle was revived, with others more novel, and extending the injury, inſtructions were given to the miniſter plenipotentiary of the United States at the court of London, and remonſtrances duly made by him on this ſubject, as will appear by documents tranſmitted herewith. Theſe were followed by a partial and temporary ſuſpenſion only, without any diſavowal of the principle. He has, therefore, been inſtructed to urge this ſubject anew, to bring it more fully to the bar of reaſon, and to inſiſt on rights too evident and too important to be ſurrendered. In the mean time, the evil is proceeding under adjudications founded on the principle which is denied. Under theſe circumſtances, the ſubject preſents itſelf for the conſideration of congreſs.

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* *Ne pourroit durer d'advantage,*

On the impreſſment of our ſeamen, our remonſtrances have never been intermitted. A hope exiſted at one moment, of an arrangement which might have been ſubmitted to; but it ſoon paſſed away; and the practice, though relaxed at times in the diſtant ſeas, has been conſtantly purſued in thoſe in our neighbourhood. The grounds on which the reclamations on this ſubject have been urged, will appear in an extract from inſtructions to our miniſter at London, now communicated. TH: JEFFERSON.

January 17, 1806.

Extract of a letter from the Secretary of State to JAMES MONROE, *Eſq. dated Department of State, April* 12, 1806.

"THE papers herewith incloſed, explain particularly the caſe of the brig Aurora.

"The ſum of the caſe is, that whilſt Spain was at war with Great Britain, this veſſel, owned by a citizen of the United States, brought a cargo of Spaniſh produce, purchaſed at the Havana, from that place to Charleſton, where the cargo was landed, except an inſignificant portion of it, and the duties paid, or ſecured, according to law, in like manner as they are required to be paid, or ſecured, on a like cargo, from whatever port, meant for home conſumption; that the cargo remained on land about three weeks, when it was reſhipped forBarcelona, in old Spain, and the duties drawn back, with a deduction of three and a half per cent, as is permitted to imported articles in all caſes, at any time within one year, under certain regulations, which were purſued in this caſe; that the veſſel was taken on her voyage by a Britiſh cruiſer, and ſent for trial to Newfoundland, where the cargo was condemned by the court of vice admiralty; and that the cauſe was carried thence, by appeal, to Great Britain, where it was apprehended that the ſentence below would not be reverſed.

The ground of this ſentence was, and that of its confirmation, if ſuch be the reſult, muſt be, that the trade in which the veſſel was engaged was unlawful, and this unlawfulneſs muſt reſt, firſt, on the general principle aſſumed by Great Britain, that a trade from a colony to its parent country, being a trade not permitted to other nations in time of peace, cannot be made lawful to them in time of war; ſecondly, on the allegation that the continuity of the voyage from the Havana to Barcelona was not broken by landing the cargo in the United States, paying the duties thereon, and thus fulfilling the legal pre-requiſites to a home conſumption; and, therefore, that the cargo was ſubject to condemnation, even under the Britiſh regulation of January, 1798, which ſo far relaxes the general principle as to allow a direct trade between a belligerent colony, and a neutral country carrying on ſuch a trade.

With reſpect to the general principle which diſallows to neutral nations, in time of war, a trade not allowed to them in time of peace, it may be obſerved,

Firſt, That the principle is of modern date; that it is maintained, as is believed, by no other nation but GreatBritain; and that it was aſſumed by her under the auſpices of a maritime aſcendency, which rendered ſuch a principle ſubſervient to her particular intereſt. The hiſtory of her regulations on this ſubject ſhews, that they have been conſtantly modified under the influence of that conſideration. The courſe of theſe modifications will be ſeen in an appendix to the fourth volume of Robinſon's Admiralty Reports.

Secondly, That the principle is manifeſtly contrary to the general intereſt of commercial nations, as well as to the law of nations ſettled by the moſt approved authorities, which recognizes no reſtraints on the trade of nations not at war, with nations at war, other than that it ſhall be impartial between the latter, that it ſhall not extend to certain military articles, nor to the tranſportation of perſons in military ſervice, nor to places actually blockaded or beſieged.

Thirdly, That the principle is the more contrary to reaſon and to right, inaſmuch as the admiſſion of neutrals into a colonial trade, ſhut againſt them in time of peace, may, and often does, reſult from conſiderations which open to neutrals direct channels of trade with the parent ſtate, ſhut to them in times of peace, the legality of which latter relaxation is not known to have been conteſted ; and inaſmuch as a commerce may be, and frequently is, opened in time of war, between a colony and other countries, from conſiderations which are not incident to the war, and which would produce the ſame effect in a time of peace ; ſuch, for example, as a failure, or diminution of the ordinary ſources of neceſſary ſupplies, or new turns in the courſe of profitable interchanges.

Fourthly, That it is not only contrary to the principles and practice of other nations, but to the practice of Great-Britain herſelf. It is well known to be her invariable practice in time of war, by relaxations in her navigation laws, to admit neutrals to trade in channels forbidden to them in times of peace ; and particularly to open her colonial trade both to neutral veſſels and ſupplies, to which it is ſhut in times of peace ; and that one at leaſt of her objects in theſe relaxations, is to give to her trade an immunity from capture, to which in her own hands it would be ſubjected by the war.

Fifthly, The practice which has prevailed in the Britiſh dominions, ſanctioned by orders of council and an act of parliament, [39 G. 3. c. 98.] authorizing for Britiſh ſubjects a direct trade with the enemy, ſtill further diminiſhes the force of her pretenſions for depriving us of the colonial trade. Thus we ſee in Robinſon's Admiralty Reports paſſim, that during the laſt war a licenſed commercial intercourſe prevailed between Great-Britain and her enemies, France, Spain and Holland, becauſe it comprehended articles neceſſary for her manufactures and agriculture ; notwithſtanding the effect it had in opening a vent to the ſurplus productions of the others. In this manner ſhe aſſumes to ſuſpend the war itſelf, as to particular objects of trade beneficial to herſelf ; whilſt ſhe denies the right of the other belligerents to ſuſpend their accuſtomed commercial reſtrictions, in favour of neutrals. But the injuſtice and inconſiſtency of her attempt to preſs a ſtrict rule on neutrals, is more forcibly diſplayed by the nature of the trade which is openly carried on between the colonies of Great-Britain and Spain in the Weſt-Indies. The mode of it is detailed in the incloſed copy of a letter from , wherein it will be ſeen that the American veſſels and cargoes, after being condemned in Britiſh courts, under pretence of illicit commerce, are ſent, on Britiſh account, to the enemies of Great-Britain, if not to the very port of the deſtination interrupted when they were American property. What reſpect can be claimed from others to a doctrine not only of ſo recent an origin, and enforced with ſo little uniformity, but which is ſo conſpicuouſly diſregarded in practice by the nation itſelf, which ſtands alone in contending for it ?

Sixthly, It is particularly worthy of attention, that the board of commiſſioners jointly conſtituted by the Britiſh and American governments, under the 7th article of the treaty of 1794, by reverſing condemnations of the Britiſh courts founded on the Britiſh inſtructions of November, 1798, condemned the principle, that a trade forbidden to neutrals in time of peace, could not be opened to them in time of war ; on which preciſe principle theſe inſtructions were founded. And as the reverſal could be juſtified by no other authority than the law of nations, by which they were guided, the law of nations, according to that joint tribunal, condemns the principle here combatted. Whether the Britiſh commiſſioners concurred in theſe reverſals, does not appear : but whether they did or did not, the deciſion was equally binding ; and affords a precedent which could not be diſreſpected by a like ſucceeding tribunal, and ought not to be without great weight with both nations, in like queſtions recurring between them.

On theſe grounds, the United States may juſtly regard the Britiſh captures and condemnations of neutral trade with colonies of the enemies of Great Britain, as violations of right; and if reaſon, conſiſtency, or that ſound policy which cannot be at variance with either, be allowed the weight which they ought to have, the Britiſh government will feel ſufficient motives to repair the wrongs done in ſuch caſes by its cruizers and courts.

But, apart from this general view of the ſubject, a refuſal to indemnify the ſufferers, in the particular caſe of the Aurora, is deſtitute of every pretext; becauſe, in the ſecond place, the continuity of her voyage was clearly and palpably broken, and the trade converted into a new character.

It has been already noted that the Britiſh regulation of 1798, admits a direct trade in time of war, between a belligerent colony and a neutral country carrying on the trade; and admits conſequently the legality of the importation by the Aurora, from the Havana to Charleſton. Nor has it ever been pretended that a neutral nation has not a right to re-export to any belligerent country whatever foreign productions, not contraband of war, which may have been duly incorporated and naturalized, as a part of the commercial ſtock of the country re-exporting it.

The queſtion then to be decided under the Britiſh regulation itſelf, is, whether in landing the cargo, paying the duties, and thus as effectually qualifying the articles for the legal conſumption of the country, as if they had been its native productions, they were not at the ſame time equally qualified with native productions, for exportation to a foreign market. That ſuch ought to be the deciſion, reſults irreſiſtibly from the following conſiderations:

1. From the reſpect which is due to the internal regulations of every country, where they cannot be charged with a temporizing partiality towards particular belligerent parties, or with fraudulent views towards all of them. The regulations of the United States, on this ſubject, muſt be free from every poſſible imputation; being not only fair in their appearance, but juſt in their principles, and having continued the ſame during the periods of war, as they were in thoſe of peace. It may be added, that they probably correſpond, in every eſſential feature relating to re-exportations, with the laws of other commercial countries, and particularly with thoſe of Great-Britain. The annexed outline of them, by the ſecretary of the treaſury, will at once explain their character, and ſhow that, in the caſe of the Aurora, every legal requiſite was duly complied with.

2. From the impoſſibility of ſubſtituting any other admiſſible criterion, than that of landing the articles, and otherwiſe qualifying them for the uſe of the country. If this regular and cuſtomary proceeding, be not a barrier againſt further inquiries, where, it may be aſked, are the inquiries to ſtop? By what evidence are particular articles to be identified on the high ſeas, or before a foreign tribunal? If identified, how is it to be aſcertained whether they were imported with a view to the market at home, or to a foreign market, or, as ought always to be preſumed, to the one or the other, as it ſhould happen to invite? or if to a foreign market, whether to one forbidden or permitted by the Britiſh regulations? for it is to be recollected that among the modifications which her policy has given to the general principle aſſerted by her, a direct trade is permitted to a neutral carrier from a belligerent colony, to her ports, as well as to thoſe of his own country. If, again, the landing of the goods and the payment of the duties be not ſufficient to break the continuity of the voyage, what, it may be aſked, is the degree of internal change or alienation which will have that effect? May not a claim be ſet up to trace the articles from hand to hand, from ſhip to ſhip, in the ſame port, and even from one port to another port, as long as they remain in the country? In a word, in departing from the ſimple criterion provided by the country itſelf, for its own legitimate and permanent objects, it is obvious, that beſides the defalcations which might be committed on our carrying trade, pretexts will be given to cruiſers for endleſs vexations on our commerce at large, and

that a latitude and delays will accrue in the diſtant proceedings of admiralty courts, ſtill more ruinous and intolerable.

3. From the deciſion in the Britiſh high court of admiralty itſelf, given in the caſe of the Polly, Laſky, maſter, by a judge deſervedly celebrated for a profound judgment, which cannot be ſuſpected of leaning towards doctrines unjuſt or injurious to the rights of his own country. On that occaſion he expreſsly declares ; " It is not my buſineſs to ſay what is univerſally the teſt of a bona fide importation ; it is argued that it would be ſufficient that the duties ſhould be paid, and that the cargo ſhould be landed. If theſe criteria are not to be reſorted to, I ſhould be at a loſs to know what ſhould be the teſt ; and I am ſtrongly diſpoſed to hold, that it would be ſufficient that the goods ſhould be landed and the duties paid." 2 Rob. Reports, p. 368—9.

The preſident has thought it proper that you ſhould be furniſhed with ſuch a view of the ſubject as is here ſketched ; that you may make the uſe of it beſt ſuited to the occaſion. If the trial of the Aurora ſhould not be over, it is queſtionable whether the government will interfere with its courts. Should the trial be over, and the ſentence of the vice admiralty court at St. John's have been confirmed, you are to loſe no time in preſenting to the Britiſh government a repreſentation correſponding with the ſcope of theſe obſervations ; and in urging that redreſs in the caſe, which is equally due to private juſtice, to the reaſonable expectations of the United States, and to that confidence and harmony, which ought to be cheriſhed between the two nations."

LETTER FROM MR. GORE TO MR. MADISON.

Boſton, November 18, 1805.

SIR—THE ſhip Indus, David Myrick, maſter, was taken by his Britannick majeſty's ſhip the Cambrian, captain John P. Beresford, in latitude 31. 30. north, and longitude 61. 56. weſt, and ſent to Halifax, where ſhe, and all the property on board, belonging to the owners, maſter, and ſupercargo, were condemned, on the ground, as is ſaid, of the illegality of the trade which ſhe was proſecuting at the time of the capture. An appeal has been claimed, and will be duly proſecuted, before the lords commiſſioners of appeal, in Great Britain, by the inſurers, to whom the ſaid ſhip and cargo have been abandoned. Theſe inſurers conſiſt of four companies, in the town of Boſton, incorporated under the names of the Maſſachuſetts Fire and Marine Inſurance, the Suffolk Inſurance, the Boſton Marine Inſurance, and the New England Inſurance, who are not only intereſted in the above deciſion, as it relates to the particular caſe in which it was rendered, but are deeply concerned on account of inſurances made by them on veſſels and cargoes that may be embraced, as they fear, by rules and principles ſaid to have been adopted in the caſe of the Indus. Theſe fears derive but too much weight from deciſions that have taken place in London, condemning property for being in a commerce always by them underſtood to be lawful, not only from their own ſenſe of the law of nations, but alſo from the aſſent of Great Britain, diſcovered by her former practice, and by principles advanced by her judges in ſupport of ſuch decrees.

The amount of property withheld, and ultimately depending on the deciſions of the high court of appeals, in the caſe of the Indus, is ſufficient, of itſelf, to demand their ſerious attention ; but when combined with the effect of principles, ſuppoſed to have been applied in this inſtance, they are apprehenſive of further and ſtill greater injuries to their own property, and that of their fellow citizens, in this quarter of the country ; and theſe loſſes, ſhould they be realized, would be encountered in the proſecution of a trade, in which they felt themſelves so unoffending againſt the rights of others—as ſecure from the interruption of the power that now moleſts them, as in coaſting voyages between different parts of the United States.

They hope, therefore, not to be thought intruſive in aſking of the government its interference, through their miniſter at the court of London, or otherwiſe, as the preſident, in his wiſdom, may judge proper, to protect their commercial rights, and to obtain redreſs of the particular injury of which they complain. They have even felt it a duty, due from them to the government of their country, to apprize thoſe entruſted with the adminiſtration of its concerns, of events, ſo injurious in themſelves, and pregnant with conſequences ſo momentous to their individual property and the general proſperity of the country. Such reflections have influenced theſe ſeveral companies to requeſt me to preſent you a ſtatement of the caſe of the Indus, for the inſpection of the government, and the purpoſes above alluded to; and alſo to ſubjoin ſome of the reaſons which have occaſioned the ſecurity with which they have hazarded their property on voyages now pretended to be unlawful.

In the ſummer of 1804, Meſſrs. David Sears and Jonathan Chapman, native citizens of the United States, and reſidents in Boſton, owned a ſhip called the Indus, which they fitted out for a voyage to India. They put on board her 63,640 dollars and three ſets of exchange, drawn by themſelves on Meſſrs. John Hodſhon and ſon, of Amſterdam, at ninety days ſight, for twenty-five thouſand three hundred guilders, which amount of ſpecie and bills they confided to Abiſhai Barnard, a native citizen of the United States, and ſupercargo. This ſhip and property, altogether owned by themſelves, they diſpatched with orders to go to the iſles of France and Bourbon, and, if able, to purchaſe a cargo there, ſo to inveſt the ſpecie and bills; if not, to proceed to Batavia, for the ſame purpoſe; if not practicable there, to go on to Calcutta, and obtain a cargo; with which cargo, whenever procured, the ſaid ſhip was directed to return to Boſton, unleſs, before the veſſel ſhould quit the iſle of France, or Batavia, a peace ſhould take place in Europe, in which event, ſhe was ordered to proceed to Falmouth in England, and conform herſelf to the orders of her owners' correſpondents in London. All the papers on board ſhewed theſe facts; and ſuch, and ſuch only, was the property and deſtination of the veſſel and her lading. In a memorandum relating to the purchaſe of the cargo, given to the ſupercargo, he was reminded not to forget to inſert in the manifeſt, after the arrival of the veſſel in the tide waters of Boſton, the words "and Embden," viz. from the iſle of France, or Batavia, to Boſton "and Embden," as this would not deprive the owners of the privilege of unloading wholly in Boſton. The object of this requeſt was, in caſe of peace, to avoid an expenſe and inconvenience which Mr. Sears, the principal owner of this ſhip and cargo, ſuffered at the laſt peace, viz. the unloading of the entire cargo of a veſſel called the Arab, from India, in the port of Boſton, which, under the then exiſting circumſtances, viz. a ſtate of peace, he inclined to ſend immediately to Europe, but which he would not have contemplated, had not peace have taken place, and which he did not anticipate when the veſſel ſailed from Boſton, as he did not foreſee a termination of the war; ſuch being the conſtruction put, by the collector of the port of Boſton and Charleſtown, on the laws in force, when the veſſel referred to arrived, and when the Indus ſailed in 1804. The expenſe of unloading and reloading this veſſel would have amounted to ſeveral thouſand dollars; and in caſe of the law being at her arrival as when ſhe ſailed, and of a peace in Europe, and the owners ſending her there, (in which event alone did they ever entertain the leaſt intention of not cloſing the voyage in America) this expenſe might have been ſaved.

With this property, and under theſe inſtructions, the Indus proceeded on her voyage to the iſle of France; not being able to procure a cargo there, ſhe went to Batavia, where ſhe loaded with the proceeds of her ſpecie, and one ſet of her bills. In the proſecution of her voyage from Batavia to Boſton, the ſhip was ſo damaged by ſtorms, that ſhe was obliged to put into the iſle of France, where the veſſel was condemned as no longer ſea-worthy; the cargo was taken out; a new veſſel purchaſed by the ſupercargo, which he named the Indus, and ſuch of the articles as were on board the former Indus, and not damaged, were reſhipped in the new Indus; theſe articles, together with ſome tea, taken on freight for certain citizens of Boſton, there to be landed, compoſed her entire cargo. With this property ſhe was within a few days ſail of her deſtined port of Boſton, in the latitude and longitude aforeſaid, when ſhe was captured by the Cambrian, ſent to Halifax and condemned, as before mentioned.

The aſſumed ground of condemnation was, as the underwriters are informed, that the direction to inſert the words "and Embden" after the arrival of the veſſel in the port of Boſton, diſcloſed an intention in the owners to continue the voyage to Europe, whereas the only object was to reſerve to themſelves the right to obviate any objection, from the cuſtom houſe here, to her proceeding thither, in the event of a peace between the preſent belligerents.

This is manifeſt from the teſtimony of the owners, and is confirmed by their inſtructions to the conductors of this voyage, as to its deſtination, in caſe of a peace before they quitted India. On this contingency only were they to proceed otherwiſe than to Boſton. The reaſon which Mr. Sears directed the words "and Embden" to be inſerted, is obvious from what he ſuffered in the caſe of the Arab, as related by himſelf and the collector of the cuſtoms; and that it was only in the event of peace, that he contemplated ſending to Europe the veſſel and cargo to which his memorandum referred, is confirmed by his former practice and courſe of trade, viz. during the laſt ten years he has been engaged in voyages to India, and likewiſe in ſhipping the produce of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to Europe, and in no caſe, during the exiſtence of war, has he ſent to Europe, articles imported by himſelf, in the ſame veſſel in which they were brought from India. Further, in the caſe of the ſhip Lydia, which arrived from India at Boſton, in the ſummer of 1864, and on board which veſſel there was the like inſtruction as in the Indus, which inſtruction was complied with by the maſter, yet, as the war continued, on her arrival at Boſton, he ſold the whole cargo to a merchant of this town; and alſo that of the Indus, in the voyage preceding the one in which ſhe was loſt, wherein the like precaution was alſo taken, and for the like purpoſe, but as it was war when ſhe arrived, the voyage terminated here. Thus, ſir, in this caſe there exiſts the moſt plenary evidence, that the voyage which the Indus was performing, when captured, was direct from Batavia to Boſton, there to terminate. A trade perfectly legal, not only in the underſtanding of the owners, but ſo acknowledged, admitted, and declared by Great Britain, in her practice, for ten years paſt, in her inſtructions to her cruiſers, in the decrees of her courts, and in the rules and principles advanced by her judges in promulgating their decrees.

The principle underſtood to be aſſumed by Great Britain is, that in time of war a trade, carried on between two independent nations, one neutral and the other belligerent, is unlawful in the neutral, if the ſame trade was not allowed and practiſed in time of peace. This principle, though aſſumed by Great Britain, is now, and always has been, reſiſted as unſound, by every other nation. She always aſſumes as a fact, that the trade with a colony has always been confined excluſively to ſhips of the parent country. In virtue, therefore, of this aſſumption of principle and fact, ſhe deems unlawful and derogatory to her rights, the trade of a neutral with the colonies of her enemies. However, in the laſt war ſhe ſo far modified her principle, as to aſſent to the lawfulneſs of the voyage of a neutral, if direct between the ports of the neutral and the colony of the enemy; and alſo a trade in ſuch colonial articles, from the country of the neutral to any other country, even to the parent country of ſuch colony, provided ſuch articles were imported, bona fide, for the uſe of the neutral, and there purchaſed, or afterwards ſhipped by himſelf; and alſo in articles the produce of the parent kingdom, from the neutral ſtate to the colony of that metropolitan kingdom, provided the exporting and importing were, bona fide, as in the other caſe. But this modification ſhe always affected to conſider as relaxation of her ſtrict rights, and from this conſideration aſſumed greater authorities to interfere with the permitted trade, as ſhe would ſay, of neutrals.

The underwriters have therefore thought it important to examine how far the doctrine is ſanctioned by the law of nations, and the grounds, on which it is ſuppoſed to reſt, are conformed to, or contravened, by the practice of the belligerents themſelves.

This principle was firſt brought forward in the war of 1756, and was then attempted to be ſupported on the doctrines advanced by Bynkerſhoop. You, ſir, to whom the writings of this eminent civilian are doubtleſs familiar, muſt be aware that the rule laid down by him, is brought forward to a very different purpoſe, and from the manner in which he treats on the rights of neutrals, and the hiſtorical fact quoted from Livy, to illuſtrate and ſanction the principle aſſerted, ſhows that it can by no means warrant the proceedings which it has been attempted to juſtify; and that there is no analogy between the caſe cited and that of the mere peaceable trade of a neutral with a belligerent, in articles not contraband of war, nor to places under blockade.

His general poſition is, that whatever nations had the power and faculty to do in time peace, they have the right to do in time of war; except that they have not a right to carry to either of two enemies articles contraband of war, or to trade to blockaded places, becauſe this would be to intermeddle in the war.

The author before cited is the principal, if not the only one, whoſe opinions are adduced, as capable of affording ſupport, or in any way bearing upon this doctrine. An authority, however, to interrupt the trade of a neutral in war, which he was not free to carry on in peace, is aſſumed as a legitimate conſequence of his acknowledged rights. The law of nations not only preſcribes rules for the conduct, and ſupports the rights of nations at war, but alſo contains regulations and principles by which the rights of ſuch as remain at peace are protected and defined.

The intercourſe between independent nations muſt excluſively reſt on the laws which ſuch nations may chooſe to eſtabliſh. This is a natural conſequence of the equality and independence of nations. Each may make ſuch commercial and other internal regulations as it thinks proper. It may open its whole trade to all foreign nations, or admit them only to a part; it may indulge one nation in ſuch a commerce and not others; it may admit them at one time and refuſe them at another; it may reſtrict its trade to certain parts of its dominions and refuſe the entrance of ſtrangers into others. In this reſpect it has a right to conſult only its own convenience, and whatever it ſhall chooſe to admit to others, may be enjoyed by them without conſulting a third power. Great Britain acts upon this principle: at one time ſhe executes her navigation law with ſtrictneſs; at other times ſhe relaxes moſt of its regulations, according to the eſtimate ſhe forms of advantage or diſadvantage to be derived from its execution or relaxation; neither does ſhe allow the competence of any foreign power to call in queſtion her right ſo to do. In time of peace ſhe compels a ſtrict adherence to the principles and letter of her navigation act: in time of war ſhe ſuſpends moſt of its proviſions, and to this ſhe is doubtleſs induced by paramount intereſt of manning her navy; whereby ſhe is enabled to employ a much greater number of ſeamen in her own defence, and to deſtroy the commerce of her foes.

In conſequence of a ſuperiority derived, in ſome degree, from this relaxation, England is rendered an entrepot for receiving and ſupplying all the products of the world; and after reaping a conſiderable revenue from the merchandiſe thus introduced, ſhe furniſhes not only the continent of Europe generally, but her own enemy with ſuch articles as are wanted, many of which ſhe prevents his receiving in the ordinary courſe.

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* Polly, Laſky. Robinſon's Admiralty Reports, p. 361. Emmanuel Robinſon, p. 186, particularly 193.

The other nations of Europe, poſſeſſing foreign colonies, and influenced by motives of convenience, certainly not by conſiderations of a higher nature than actuate Great Britain, find their advantage in a ſimilar change of their commercial ſyſtems.

The mere circumſtance, that the innocent property of a neutral is engaged in a trade permitted now, though prohibited at a former period, is in itſelf perfectly innocent, and does not ſeem capable of interfering with the rights or juſtifying the complaints of a third power.

The ordinary policy of a nation may be to encourage the manufacture or growth of a certain article within its own dominions, and for this end may prohibit or reſtrict the importation of the like articles from other countries. Does the repeal or ſuſpenſion of ſuch reſtriction confer any right to impede the tranſportation, by a third, of the article, the prohibition whereof is ſuſpended? Becauſe the corn laws of a nation operate three years in five, as a prohibition to the importation of all corn, can it be inferred that a friendly power ſhould abſtain from carrying its ſurplus corn to market? Has any belligerent a right to ſtop the corn owned by neutral merchants, on the way to its enemy, whoſe crops have failed and prohibitory laws have been repealed? The ſimple ſtate of the caſe, that the trade, though illegal in peace, is legal in war, decides the queſtion.

Recourſe is therefore had to another principle, in order to render that unlawful, which, on every ground of the equality and independence of nations, is lawful.

The belligerent has a right to diſtreſs the perſon and property of his enemy and thereby compel a ſubmiſſion to his demand, and for this purpoſe, he may uſe all the means in his power.

By interrupting the trade of neutrals, which is opened to them in war, and was prohibited in peace, the belligerent diſtreſſes his enemy, leſſens his revenue, prevents the exerciſe of his commercial capital and the employment of his merchants, and deprives him of the enjoyment of thoſe articles, which adminiſter to his comfort and convenience; therefore ſuch interruption is lawful.

An obvious anſwer to this reaſoning is, that it proves too much, is founded on a principle ſo comprehenſive as to embrace all trade between neutrals and a nation at war. If it diſtreſs a nation to interrupt that commerce, which has become lawful ſince the war, it would diſtreſs him much more to cut off all trade; that which was allowed in time of peace, as well as that which was not; and the ſame reaſon which is uſed to authorize an interruption of the one, would as well juſtify the other. Indeed, we have ſeveral times ſeen the like doctrine extended this length in the heat of conteſt; but no inſtance has occurred of an attempt to vindicate it in time of peace; for the legality of a trade in innocent articles, to a place not blockaded, and the right of the neutral to carry it on, depends entirely on the laws of the two countries, between which, and by whoſe inhabitants it is proſecuted, and in no degree on the conſent of the belligerent. If this argument of diſtreſs, combined with that of an unaccuſtomed trade, ſhould be admitted in all its latitude, no trade with belligerents would be legal to neutrals. The enemies of Great Britain would be diſpoſed to attribute much weight to a conſideration of the peculiar advantages, which a power conſtituted as her's may be ſuppoſed to derive, and ſuch evils as ſhe may be preſumed to prevent, by the relaxation of her commercial ſyſtem. A continental power may derive ſome accommodation, and ſome convenience from relaxing her commercial reſtrictions; but nothing eſſential to her ſafety, nothing, as was demonſtrated in the laſt war, materially affecting the great objects of the conteſt. She might obtain the articles of Eaſt and Weſt India produce a little cheaper by theſe means than if compelled to procure them by her own ſhips, or through the medium of her enemy; for it is a circumſtance which very much impairs the argument of diſtreſſing the foe, that in modern wars it is the practice of commercial nations, notwithſtanding they reſpectively capture each other's property, to open their ports for the exchange of their merchandize, by the aſſiſtance of neutrals, and in this way afford the ſuccour they mutually need. It will, however, be ſaid that it is not the trade between neutral countries and the metropolitan dominions of Europe which is deemed illegal, but the trade of neutrals with their colonies. It is not eaſy to perceive the grounds on which this diſtinction reſts, but without complaining of an exceptionable rule, becauſe the practice under it is not as extenſive as its principle might be ſuppoſed to warrant, it may be examined in the caſe to which it is applied.

The argument of diſtreſſing the enemy is adduced to vindicate the interruption of the trade of neutrals with enemies' colonies. This diſtreſs can be inflicted in two ways; by depriving the colony of the neceſſary ſupplies, or the parent country of the colony productions. To ſupply the enemies' colonies is not conſidered legal, provided it be done from the neutral country; and alſo to furniſh the parent country with the produce of the colony, provided it be done from the neutral country. The argument, therefore, of diſtreſs is narrowed down to a mere trifle; to the addition of a fraction in the price of the article ſupplied to the parent country: for, ſo far as reſpects the ſupply of the colony and the finding a market for its produce, and the arguments flowing from thence, theſe, ſurely the moſt plauſible on the ſcore of inflicting diſtreſs, are utterly abandoned. But further, the ſame commercial ſpirit which has been before noticed, leads the great nations of Europe themſelves to contribute to thoſe very ſupplies, the depriving the enemy whereof is alleged as a juſtification for interrupting the trade of neutrals. Not only a trade in Europe, but a regular and authorized trade, to the extent of every neceſſary and almoſt every other ſupply, was carried on during the laſt war between the Britiſh and Spaniſh colonies: and inſtances have again and again occurred, and before the cloſe of the late war, ceaſed to be conſidered as extraordinary, where the cargoes of neutral veſſels bound to the Spaniſh colonies were ſeized by the Britiſh, and condemned in the vice-admiralty courts, on pretence that the trade was illegal; and the articles thus ſtopped and made prize of, under the plea of diſtreſſing the enemy, were ſhipped on board a Spaniſh or Britiſh veſſel, ſupplied with a Britiſh licenſe, and ſent to the original port of their deſtination. Surely, ſuch a mode of diſtreſſing the enemy may be more properly denominated diſtreſſing the neutral, for the purpoſe of ſupplying the enemy at the excluſive profit of the belligerent.

Such, ſir, are ſome of the obſervations which theſe gentlemen make on the difference between the practice and avowed principles of belligerents, and the unavoidable conſequences of ſuch principles, and which ſatisfy their minds that, according to the practice of belligerents themſelves, there is no foundation for the arguments raiſed on pretence of diſtreſſing the enemy, and that interrupting a trade in war, becauſe not exerciſed in peace, is inconſiſtent with the equality and independence of nations, and an infringement of their perfect rights. It is alſo evident that the wants and intereſts of all nations at war, even of thoſe who poſſeſs the moſt powerful commercial and military navy, require them to contradict in their own practice thoſe principles which are avowed in juſtification of the injuries they inflict on neutrals.

To ſupport this doctrine it is alſo neceſſary to aſſume as true, that all trade and intercourſe between the colonies of the different European powers, and other countries, have been conſtantly and uniformly interdicted in time of peace, and that ſuch colonies depended excluſively on the metropolitan kingdom for ſupplies of every kind. That nothing could be received by or from them, but through the mother country; except when the overpowering force of the publick enemy had prevented all ſuch communication. This ſuppoſed excluſive trade ſo confidently aſſumed, will, on examination, be found ſubject to many exceptions. It is well known that ſome of the Britiſh Weſt India colonies, during the commotions, which exiſted in England, in conſequence of the diſagreement between Charles the firſt, and his parliament, exported their produce to Europe by Dutch ſhips, manned with Dutch ſeamen, and that the navigation act originated in the double view of puniſhing ſome of theſe colonies, who had diſcovered an attachment to the cauſe of defeated royalty, and of curtailing the means enjoyed by the Dutch, of increaſing their wealth, influence, and power. An intercourſe has always been admitted; at ſome times very reſtrained; at others more extended, as ſuited the caprice of the governours, or as the neceſſity of the colonies required.

Until a period ſubſequent to the treaty of Utrecht, France ſeems to have paid no attention to her Weſt India colonies. Previous to that time, they do not appear to have enjoyed any conſtant correſpondence, or direct intercourſe with the mother country; and at all times, as well before, as ſince the independence of the continental colonies of Great Britain, a direct trade has exiſted between the colonies of France and thoſe of Great Britain in the Weſt Indies, and alſo with the ſettlements on the continent of North America, more or leſs limited, as real or pretended convenience demanded.

Great Britain, prior to the independence of the United States, had leſs occaſion to admit the entry of veſſels and merchandize from, or the export of the produce of her colonies to, any other than her own dominions; yet, inſtances are not wanting of the relaxation of her navigation act, for both purpoſes; and in the year 1739, a bill paſſed the parliament, allowing the ſugar colonies, for a limited time, to export their produce to foreign ports. In fact, colonies depending on other countries for their ſupplies, and at a diſtance from their parent country, muſt, at times, admit the intercourſe of foreigners, or ſuffer the greateſt impoveriſhment and diſtreſs. It will not be denied, that the Britiſh provinces in the Weſt Indies depend, in a great meaſure, if not altogether, on the United States for their corn. True it is, that the ſhipment is generally made in Britiſh veſſels; but ſhould the United States deem it for their intereſt, to inſiſt on its being tranſported thither in American ſhips, it is not certain that the convenience, not to ſay the neceſſities of the colonies, would not render an acquieſcence adviſable. The fact is, in regard to the colonies in the Weſt Indies, whether belonging to France or Great Britain, that the monopoly has not been, and in the nature of things never can be, very ſtrict, conſtant, and excluſive. The United States always have enjoyed, and without hazarding much one may pronounce with confidence, that they always muſt enjoy, a direct intercourſe with their colonies, however adverſe to the diſpoſitions or ſuppoſed intereſt of the parent countries in Europe. Thus ſtands the fact of an accuſtomed trade, in time of peace, as relates to the Weſt Indies. In regard to the Eaſt Indies, it is certain that the veſſels of the United States have always gone freely to the Britiſh ſettlements there, and it is believed, that the veſſels of our country were the firſt to export ſugars from Bengal, and that their exportations have augmented immenſely the culture of that article in that country. To many of the Dutch ſettlements our veſſels have gone with but little interruption; and to ſome of theſe, and to the French poſſeſſions, more eſpecially to the iſles of France and Bourbon, the trade of the United States has been conſtant, uninterrupted, and increaſing, ever ſince the year 1784. It is difficult then, sir, for theſe gentlemen to conceive how the doctrine or the fact, aſſumed by Great Britain, can be ſupported by the law of nations, or reconciled to the truth.

Moreover, Great Britain profeſſes, that the deciſions of her admiralty courts are always regulated by the law of nations; that they do not bend to particular circumſtances, nor are guided by the orders or inſtructions of the government. The principles of this law are immutable; being founded on truth and juſtice, they are ever the ſame. Now it appears from the practice of Great Britain herſelf, that in the war of 1744, and in that which was concluded in 1783, whether the trade was an accuſtomed one in time of peace, made no part of the diſcuſſion, nor was it pretended, that the trade not having been proſecuted in peace, ſubjected the veſſel or cargo to forfeiture, in war. It ſeems more like the offſpring of her pre-eminent power on the ocean, in the two wars of 1756, and that which lately ended, than the legitimate doctrine of right and juſtice. In the war of 1756, Dutch veſſels by ſpecial licenſe from France, were permitted to export the produce of the French colonies. Theſe were captured and condemned, on the ground, that by adoption they had become French veſſels. Afterwards the property was carried to Monte Chriſti, and exported thence in Dutch veſſels. Particular trades, and ſpecial privileges were alſo allowed by France, to veſſels belonging to citizens of Amſterdam, as a gratification for their peculiar exertions to induce the ſtadtholder to take part with France againſt Great Britain. Veſſels and their cargoes ſo circumſtanced, were captured and condemned by the Britiſh, and this principle was then brought forward to juſtify their conduct, as covering, in their courts, all the caſes by a rule as extenſive as was the power and cupidity of their cruiſers on the ſea.

. In the war for the independence of America, this principle, ſet up for the firſt time in that which preceded it, and contrary to former practice, was abandoned. This is exemplified in the following caſe, viz; A veſſel bound from Marſeilles to Martinico, and back again, was taken on the outward voyage; the vice admiralty court at Antigua gave half freight. On appeal, the lords of appeal gave the whole. It is ſaid in anſwer to this, that France opened her colonies, and though it was during the exiſtence of war, yet it was the profeſſion of keeping them always ſo, but was afterwards found deluſive. The lords of appeal, however, in the caſe of the Daniſh veſſel, could not have acted upon ſuch grounds; for their deciſion was in 1786, three years after the peace, and after it was manifeſt, if any doubt had before exiſted, that the general opening of the trade between the colonies and the mother country, to foreigners, was a temporary expedient, and dependent on the duration of the war. The claim before them was merely equitable, being for freight of that part of the voyage which had not been performed, and to obtain which the party claiming is bound to ſhew, that he has offended no law and interfered with no rights of the belligerent.

What renders the conduct of Great Britain peculiarly injurious to the merchants of our country at this time, is the extenſion of this offenſive doctrine, contrary to her own expreſs and publick declaration of the law during the laſt war; for it was then declared, that the importation from an enemy's colony, to the country to which the ſhip belonged, and the ſubſequent exportation was lawful; and ſo of property, the produce of the parent country, going from the United States to the colony—Vide caſes of Immanual and Polly, in Robinſon's Admiralty Reports, before cited. Whereas property going from the United States, the produce of an enemy's country, to her colony, although bona fide imported and landed in the United States, and exported on the ſole account and riſk of the American merchant, is now taken and condemned, on the grounds that the ſame perſon and veſſel imported and exported the ſame articles; and thus, by an arbitrary interpretation of the intention of the merchant, the ſecond voyage is adjudged to be a continuance of the firſt. If this new and extraordinary doctrine of continuity is maintained on the part of Great Britain, and acquieſced in by the United States, a very large property, now afloat, may be ſubject to condemnation, and it muſt follow, that an extenſive trade, which has been carried on with great advantage by the United States for theſe twelve years, and admitted to be lawful, will be totally annihilated.

The Indus, and cargo, have been condemned on the mere poſſibility, that the ſame might go to Europe, from Boſton, in caſe of a peace, in which event Great Britain could pretend to no authority to queſtion the voyage ſhe ſhould make.

Now, to adopt a principle of dubious right in its own nature, and then to extend ſuch principle to a further reſtriction of the trade of the neutral without notice, is ſpreading a ſnare to entrap the property and defeat the acknowledged rights to which he is entitled.

Such are its effects, both on the individual owners of this property, as well as on the underwriters. For Mr. Sears and Mr. Chapman, in planning this voyage, and indeed in every one they ever proſecuted, have endeavoured to aſcertain what the law authorized them to do, as that law was underſtood and practiſed by the belligerents, and for this purpoſe they examined the orders to the Britiſh cruiſers, the adjudications in the Britiſh courts during the laſt war, and conceived themſelves clearly within even the narroweſt limits to which Great Britain profeſſed to circumſcribe the trade of neutrals. The underwriters alſo have been uniformly guided, in inſuring property, by the rules declared and promulgated by the belligerents themſelves. In the preſent caſe, they conſidered, that according to the cleareſt evidence of thoſe rules, they incurred no riſk from Britiſh cruiſers.

Should then Great Britain undertake to preſume, that the law would authorize the interruption of ſuch a trade, theſe gentlemen cannot bring themſelves to believe, that under even ſuch impreſſions of her rights ſhe would ſo far forget what is due to her former underſtanding of the law, and to the encouragement given to ſuch a commerce, as without notice of her altered ſentiments to ſeize and confiſcate the property of thoſe, who had ſo conformed their voyages to rules pronounced by herſelf.

I have the honour to be, ſir,
With great reſpect, your obedient ſervant,
(Signed) C. GORE.

Honourable James Madiſon, eſq.
ſecretary of ſtate.

REMONSTRANCE BY THE MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

No. 12, Sept. 23, 1805.

MY LORD,

I FLATTERED myſelf, from what paſſed in our laſt interview, that I ſhould have been honoured, before this, with an anſwer from your lordſhip to my letters reſpecting the late ſeizure of American veſſels. I underſtood it to be agreed, that the diſcuſſion which then took place, ſhould be conſidered as unofficial, as explanatory only of the ideas which we might reſpectively entertain on the ſubject, and that your lordſhip would afterwards give me ſuch a reply to my letters, reſpecting that meaſure, as his majeſty's government might deſire to have communicated to the government of the United States. In conſequence, I have ſince waited with anxiety for ſuch a communication, in the daily expectation of receiving it. It is far from being my deſire to give your lordſhip any trouble in this buſineſs which I can avoid, as the time which has ſince elapſed ſufficiently ſhews. But the great importance of the ſubject, which has indeed become more ſo by the continuance of the ſame policy and the frequency of ſeizures which are ſtill made of American veſſels, place me in a ſituation of peculiar reſponſibility. My government will expect of me correct information on this point, in all its views, and I am very deſirous of complying with its juſt expectation. I muſt, therefore, again requeſt that your lordſhip would be ſo kind as to enable me to make ſuch a repreſentation to my government, of that meaſure, as his majeſty's government may think proper to give.

I am ſorry to add, that the longer I have reflected on the ſubject, the more confirmed I have been in the objections to the meaſure. If we examine it in reference to the law of nations, it appears to me to be repugnant to every principle of that law ; if by the underſtanding, or as it may be more properly called, the agreement of our governments, reſpecting the commerce in queſtion, I conſider it equally repugnant to the principles of that agreement. In both theſe views your lordſhip will permit me to make ſome additional remarks on the ſubject.

By the law of nations as ſettled by the moſt approved writers, no other reſtraint is acknowledged, on the trade of neutral nations, with thoſe at war, than that it be impartial between the latter; that it ſhall not extend to articles which are deemed contraband of war; nor to the tranſportation of perſons in military ſervice; nor to places actually blockaded or beſieged. Every other commerce of a neutral with a belligerent is conſidered as a lawful commerce; and every other reſtraint on it to either of the belligerents by the other, an unlawful reſtraint.

The liſt of contraband it well defined, as are alſo the circumſtances which conſtitute a blockade. The beſt authorities have united in confining the firſt to ſuch articles as are uſed in war, and are applicable to military purpoſes; and requiring, to conſtitute the latter, the diſpoſition of ſuch a force, conſiſting of ſtationary ſhips, ſo near the port, by the power which attacks it, as to make it dangerous for the veſſel of a neutral power to enter it. The late treaty been *Great Britain* and *Ruſſia*, deſignates theſe circumſtances as neceſſary to conſtitute a blockade, and it is believed that it was never viewed before in a light more favourable to the invading power.

The veſſels condemned were engaged in a commerce between the *United States* and ſome port in *Europe*, or between thoſe ſtates and the *Weſt India Iſlands*, belonging to an enemy of *Great Britain*. In the European voyage the cargo conſiſted of the goods of the power to which the colony belonged and to which the ſhip was deſtined. The ſhip and cargo in every caſe, were the property of American citizens, and the cargo had been landed, and the duty on it paid in the *United States*. It was decided that theſe voyages were continuous, and the veſſels and cargoes were condemned on the principle that the commerce was illegal. I beg to refer more eſpecially in this ſtatement to the caſe of the Eſſex, an appeal from the judgment of the vice admiralty court at *New Providence*, in which the lords commiſſioners of appeals in confirming that judgment eſtabliſhed this doctrine.

It requires but a ſlight view of the ſubject to be ſatisfied that theſe condemnations are incompatible with the law of nations as above ſtated. None of the caſes have involv'd a queſtion of contraband, of blockade, or of any other kind that was ever conteſted till of late,in favour of a belligerent againſt a neutral power. It is not on any principle that is applicable to any ſuch caſe, that the meaſure can be defended. On what principle then is it ſupported by *Great Britain?* What is the nature and extent of the doctrine? What are the circumſtances which recommend, the arguments which ſupport it? For information on theſe points we cannot refer to the well known writers on the law of nations; no illuſtration can be obtained from them of a doctrine which they never heard of. We muſt look for it to an authority more modern; to one which, however reſpectable for the learning and profeſſional abilities of the judge who preſides, is nevertheleſs one which, from many conſiderations, is not obligatory on other powers. In a report of the deciſions of the court of admiralty of this kingdom, we find a notice of a ſeries of orders iſſued by the government of different dates and imports, which have regulated the buſineſs. The firſt of theſe bears date on the 6th of Nov. 1793; the ſecond on the 8th of Jan. 1794; the third on the 25th Jan. 1798. Other orders have been iſſued ſince the commencement of the preſent war. It is theſe orders which have authorized the ſeizures that were made at different times in the courſe of the laſt war, and were lately made by Britiſh cruiſers of the veſſels of the *United States*. Theſe too form the law which has governed the courts in the deciſions on the ſeveral caſes which have ariſen under thoſe ſeizures. The firſt of theſe orders prohibits altogether every ſpecies of commerce between neutral countries and enemies' colonies; and between neutral and other countries, in the productions of thoſe colonies; the ſecond and ſubſequent orders modify it in various forms. The doctrine, however, in every deciſion, is the ſame ; it is contended in each, that the character and juſt extent of the principle is to be found in the the firſt order, and that every departure from it ſince has been a relaxation of the principle, not claimed of right by neutral powers, but conceded in their favour gratuitouſly by *Great-Britain.*

In ſupport of theſe orders it is urged, that as the colonial trade is a ſyſtem of monopoly to the parent country in time of peace, neutral powers have no right to participate in it in time of war,although they be permitted ſo to do by the parent country ; that a belligerent has a right to interdict them from ſuch a commerce. It is on this ſyſtem of internal reſtraint, this regulation of colonial trade, by the powers having colonies, that a new principle of the law of nations is attempted to be founded ; one which ſeeks to diſcriminate in reſpect to the commerce of neutral powers, with a belligerent,between different parts of the territory of the ſame power, and likewiſe ſubverts many other principles of great importance, which have heretofore been held ſacred among nations. It is believed that ſo important a ſuperſtructure was never raiſed on ſo ſlight a foundation. Permit me to aſk, does it follow, becauſe the parent country monopoliſes in peace the whole commerce of her colonies, that in war it ſhould have no right to regulate it at all ? That on the contrary it ſhould be conſtrued to transfer, in equal extent, a right to its enemy, to the prejudice of the parent country, of the colonies, and of neutral powers ? If this doctrine was ſound it would certainly inſtitute a new and ſingular mode of acquiring and loſing rights ; one which would be highly advantageous to one party, while it wrs equally injurious to the other. To the colonies, more eſpecially, it would prove peculiarly onerous and oppreſſive. It is known that they are eſſentially dependent for their exiſtence, on ſupplies from other countries, eſpecially the United States of America, who, being in their neighbourhood, have the means of furniſhing them with greateſt certainty, and on the beſt terms. Is it not ſufficient that they be ſubjected to that reſtraint in peace, when the evils attending it, by the occaſional interference of the parent country, may be, and are frequently required ? Is it conſiſtent with juſtice or humanity, that it ſhould be converted into a principle, in favour of an enemy, inexorable of courſe, but otherwiſe without the means of liſtening to their complaints, not for their diſtreſs or oppreſſion only, but for their extermination ? But there are other inſuperable objections to this doctrine. Are not the colonies of every country a part of its domain, and do they not cnntinue to be ſo until they are ſevered from it by conqueſt ? Is not the power to regulate commerce, incident to the ſovereignty, and is it not co-extenſive over the whole territory which any government poſſeſſes ? Can one belligerent acquire any right to the territory of another but by conqueſt ? And can any rights which appertain thereto, be otherwiſe defeated or curtailed in war ? In whatever light, therefore, the ſubject is viewed, it appears to me evident that this doctrine cannot be ſupported. No diſtinction, founded in reaſon, can be taken between the different parts of the territory of the ſame power to juſtify it. The ſeparation of one portion from another by the ſea gives lawfully to the belligerent which is ſuperiour on that element, a vaſt aſcendency in all the concerns on which the ſucceſs of the war, or the relative proſperity of their reſpective dominions, may in any degree depend. It opens to ſuch power ample means for its own aggrandiſement, and for the harraſſment and diſtreſs of its adverſary. With theſe it ſhould be ſatisfied. But neither can that circumſtance, nor can any internal arrangement, which any power may adopt for the government of its domains, be conſtrued to give to its enemy any other advantage over it. They certainly do not juſtify the doctrine in queſtion, which aſſerts that the law of nations varies in its application to different portions of the territory of the ſame power : that it operates in one mode, in reſpect to one, and in another, or even not at all, in reſpect to another ; that the rights of humanity, of neutral powers, and all other rights, are to ſink before it.

It is further urged that neutral powers ought not to complain of this reſtraint, becauſe they ſtand under it, on the ſame ground, with reſpect to that commerce, which they held in time of peace. But this fact, if true, gives no ſupport to the pretenſion. The claim involves a queſtion of right, not of intereſt. If the neutral powers have a right in war to ſuch commerce with the colonies of the enemies of Great Britain, as the parent ſtates reſpectively allowed, they ought not to be deprived of it by her, nor can its juſt claims be ſatisfied by any compromiſe of the kind alluded to. For this argument to have the weight which it is intended to give it, the commerce of the neutral powers with thoſe colonies ſhould be placed and preſerved through the war, in the ſame ſtate, as if it had not occurred. Great Britain ſhould in reſpect to them take the place of the parent country,and do every thing which the latter would have done had there been no war. To diſcharge that duty,it would be neceſſary for her to eſtabliſh ſuch a police over the colony, as to be able to examine the circumſtances attending it annually, to aſcertain whether the crops were abundant, ſupplies from other quarters had failed, and eventually to decide whether under ſuch circumſtances the parent country would have opened the ports to neutral powers. But theſe offices cannot be performed by any power which is not in poſſeſſion of the colony ; that can only be obtained by conqueſt, in which caſe, the victor would of courſe have a right to regulate its trade as it thought fit.

It is alſo ſaid, that neutral powers have no right to profit of the advantages which are gained in war by the arms of *Great Britain*.. This argument has even leſs weight than the others. It does not, in truth, apply at all to the queſtion. Neutral powers do not claim a right, as already obſerved, to any commerce with the colonies which *Great Britain* may have conquered of her enemies, otherwiſe than on the conditions which ſhe impoſes. The point in queſtion turns on the commerce which they are entitled to with the colonies which ſhe has not conquered, but ſtill remain ſubject to the dominion of the parent country. With ſuch it is contended,for reaſons that have been already given, that neutral powers have a right to enjoy all the advantages in trade which the parent country allows them : a right of which the mere circumſtance of war cannot deprive them. If *Great Britain* had a right to prohibit that commerce, it exiſted before the war began, and of courſe before ſhe had gained any advantage over her enemies. If it did not then exiſt, it certainly does not at the preſent time. Rights of the kind in queſtion, cannot depend on the fortune of war, or other contingencies. The law which regulates them is invariable,until it be changed by the competent authority. It forms a rule equally between belligerent powers, and between neutral and belligerent, which is dictated by reaſon and ſanctioned by the uſage and conſent of nations.

The foregoing conſiderations have, it is preſumed, proved that the claim of *Great Britain* to prohibit the commerce of neutral powers, in the manner propoſed, is repugnant to the law of nations. If, however, any doubt remained on that point, other conſiderations which may be urged cannot fail to remove it. The number of orders of different imports which have been iſſued by government, to regulate the ſeizure of neutral veſſels, is a proof that there is no eſtabliſhed law for the purpoſe. And the ſtrictneſs with which the courts have followed thoſe orders, through their various modifications, is equally a proof that there is no other authority for the government of their deciſions. If the order of the 6th of November, 1793, contained the true doctrine of the law of nations, there would have been no occaſion for thoſe which followed, nor is it probable that they would have been iſſued ; indeed if that order had been in conformity with that law, there would have been no occaſion for it. As in the caſes of blockade and contraband, the law would have been well known without an order, eſpecially one ſo very deſcriptive, the intereſt of the cruiſers, which is always ſufficienrly active,would have prompted them to make the ſeizures, and the opinion of eminent writers, which in that caſe would not have been wanting, would have furniſhed the courts the beſt authority for their deciſions.

I ſhall now proceed to ſhew that the deciſions complained of are contrary to the underſtanding, or what, perhaps, may more properly be called an agreement of the two governments, on the ſubject. By the order of the 6th of November, 1793, ſome hundreds of American veſſels were ſeized, carried into port, and condemned. Thoſe ſeizures, and condemnations, became the ſubject of an immediate negociation between the two nations, which terminated in a treaty, by which it was agreed to ſubmit the whole ſubject to commiſſioners, who ſhould be inveſted with full power to ſettle the controverſy which had thus ariſen. That ſtipulation was carried into complete effect; commiſſioners were appointed, who examined, laboriouſly and fully, all the caſes of ſeizure and condemnation which had taken place, and finally decided on the ſame, in which deciſions they condemned the principle of the order and awarded compenſation to thoſe who had ſuffered under it. Thoſe awards have been ſince fairly and honourably diſcharged by G. B. It merits particular attention that a part of the 12th article of that treaty, referred expreſsly to the point in queſtion, and that it was on the ſolemn deliberation of each government, by their mutual conſent, expunged from it. It ſeems therefore to be impoſſible to conſider that tranſaction, under all the circumſtances attending it, in any other light than as a fair and amicable adjuſtment of the queſtion between the parties; one which authorized the juſt expectation, that it would never have become again a cauſe of complaint between them. The ſenſe of both was expreſſed on it in a manner too marked and explicit to admit of a different concluſion. The ſubject too was of a nature that when once ſettled ought to be conſidered as ſettled forever. It is not like queſtions of commerce between two powers, which affect their internal concerns, and depend, of courſe, on the internal regulations of each. When theſe latter are arranged by treaty, the rights which accrue to each party under it, in the interiour of the other, ceaſe when the treaty expires. Each has a right afterwards to decide for itſelf in what manner that concern ſhall be regulated in future, and in that deciſion to conſult ſolely its intereſt. But the preſent topick is of a very different character. It involves no queſtion of commerce or other internal concern between two nations. It reſpects the commerce only, which either may have with the enemies of the other, in time of war. It involves, therefore, only a queſtion of right, under the law of nations, which in its nature cannot fluctuate. It is proper to add, that the concluſion, above mentioned, was further ſupported by the important fact, that, until the late decree in the caſe of the *Eſſex*, not one American veſſel, engaged in this commerce, had been condemned on this doctrine; that ſeveral which were met in the channel, by the Britiſh cruiſers, were permitted, after an examination of their papers, to purſue the voyage. This circumſtance juſtified the opinion, that that commerce was deemed a lawful one by Great Britain.

There is another ground, on which the late ſeizures and condemnations are conſidered as highly objectionable, and furniſh juſt cauſe of complaint to the United States. Until the final report of commiſſioners under the 7th article of the treaty of 1794, which was not made until laſt year, it is admitted that their arbitrament was not obligatory on the parties, in the ſenſe in which it is now contended to be. Every intermediate declaration, however, by G. B. of her ſenſe on the ſubject, muſt be conſidered as binding on her, as it laid the foundation of commercial enterprizes, which were thought to be ſecure while within that limit. Your lordſhip will permit me to refer you to ſeveral examples of this kind, which were equally formal and official, in which the ſenſe of his majeſty's government was declared very differently from what it has been in the late condemnations. In Robinſon's reports, vol. 2, page 368, (caſe the Polly, Laſkey, maſter) it ſeems to have been clearly eſtabliſhed by the learned judge of the court of admiralty, that an American has a right to import the produce of an enemy's colony into the United States, and to ſend it on afterwards to the general commerce of Europe; and that the landing the goods, and paying the duties in the United States ſhould preclude all further queſtion relative to the voyage. The terms "for his own uſe," which are to be found in the report, are obviouſly intended to aſſert the claim, only that the property ſhall be American, and not that of an enemy; by admitting the right to ſend on the produce afterwards to the general commerce of Europe, it is not poſſible that thoſe terms ſhould convey any other idea. A *bona fide* importation is alſo held by the judge to be ſatisfied by the landing the goods and paying the duties. This therefore is, I think, the true import of that deciſion. The doctrine is again laid down in ſtill more explicit terms by the government itſelf, in a correſpondence between lord Hawkeſbury and my predeceſſor, Mr. King. The caſe was preciſely ſimilar to thoſe which have been lately before the court. Mr. King complained, in a letter of March 18, 1801, that the cargo of an American veſſel going from the United States to a Spaniſh colony, had been condemned by the vice admiralty court of Naſſau, on the ground that it was of the growth of Spain, which deciſion he contended was contrary to the law of nations, and requeſted that ſuitable inſtructions might be diſpatched to the proper officers in the Weſt Indies, to prevent like abuſes in future.

Lord Hawkeſbury, in a reply of April 11, communicated the report of the king's advocate general, in which it is expreſsly ſtated that the produce of an enemy may be imported by a neutral into his own country and re-exported thence to the mother country; and in like manner, in that circuitous mode, that the produce and manufactures of the mother country might find their way to its colonies; that the landing the goods and paying the duties in the neutral country broke the continuity of the voyage, and legalized the trade, although the goods were re-ſhipped in the ſame veſſel, on account of the ſame neutral proprietors, and forwarded for ſale to the mother country of the colony. It merits attention in this report, (ſo clearly and poſitively is the doctrine laid down, that the landing the goods and paying the duties in the neutral country broke the continuity of the voyage) that it is ſtated as a doubtful point whether the mere touching in the neutral country to obtain freſh clearances will be conſidered in the light of the direct trade; that no poſitive inhibition is inſiſted on any but the direct trade between the mother country and the colonies.

This doctrine, in the light herein ſtated, is alſo to be found in the treaty between Great Britain and Ruſſia, June 17, 1801. By the 2d ſection of the 3d article, the commerce of neutrals in the productions or manufactures of the enemies of Great Britain, which have become the property of the neutral, is declared to be free; that ſection was afterwards explained by a declaratory article of October 20 of the ſame year, by which it is agreed, that it ſhall not be underſtood to authoriſe neutrals to carry the produce or merchandiſe of an enemy either directly from the colonies to the parent country, or from the parent country to the colonies. In other reſpects the commerce was left on the footing on which it was placed by that ſection, perfectly free, except in the direct trade between the colony and the parent country. It is worthy of remark that, as by the reference made in the explantaory article of the treaty with *Ruſſia* to the *U. S.* of *America*, it was ſuppoſed that thoſe ſtates and *Ruſſia*, *Denmark*, and *Sweden*, had a common intereſt in neutral queſtions, ſo it was obviouſly intended, from the ſimilarity of ſentiment which is obſervable between that treaty as mentioned, and the report of the advocate general above mentioned, to place all the parties on the ſame footing. After theſe acts of the Britiſh government, which being official were made publick, it was not to be expected that any greater reſtraint would have been contemplated by it, on that commerce, than they impoſe; that an inquiry would ever have been made, not whether the property with which an American veſſel was charged belonged to a citizen of the United Sates or an enemy, but whether it belonged to this or that American; an inquiry which impoſes a condition which it is believed that no independent nation, having a juſt ſenſe of what it owes to its rights or its honour, can ever comply with. Much leſs was it to be expected that ſuch a reſtraint would have been thought of after the report of the commiſſioners above adverted to, which ſeemed to have placed the rights of the United States inconteſtibly on a much more liberal, and as is contended, juſt footing.

It is proper to add, that the decree of the lords commiſſioners of appeals in the caſe of the *Eſſex* produce the ſame effect as an order from the government would have done. Prior to that decree, from the commencement of the war, the commerce in queſtion was purſued by the citizens of the United States, as has been already obſerved, without moleſtation. It is preſumable that till then his majeſty's cruiſers were induced to forbear a ſeizure, by the ſame conſideration which induced the American citizens to engage in the commerce, a belief that it was a lawful one. The facts above mentioned were equally before the parties, and it is not ſurpriſing that they ſhould have drawn the ſame concluſion from them. That decree, however,opened a new ſcene. It certainly gave a ſignal to the cruiſers to commence the ſeizures which they have not failed to do, as has been ſufficiently felt by the citizens of the United States, who have ſuffered under it. According to the information which has been given me, about fifty veſſels have been brought into the ports of Great Britain in conſequence of it, and there is reaſon to believe that the ſame ſyſtem is purſued in the Weſt-Indies and elſewhere. The meaſure is the more to be complained of, becauſe G. Britain had, in permitting the commerce for two years, given a ſanction to it by her conduct, and nothing had occurred to create a ſuſpicion that her ſentiments varied from her conduct. Had that been the caſe or had ſhe been diſpoſed to change her conduct in that reſpect towards the U. States, it might reaſonably have been expected that ſome intimation would have been given of it before the meaſure was carried into effect. Between powers who are equally deſirous of preſerving the relations of friendſhip with each other, notice might in all ſuch caſes be expected. But in the preſent caſe the obligations to give it ſeemed to be peculiarly ſtrong. The exiſtence of a negociation which had been ſought on the part of the United States ſome conſiderable time before my departure for Spain, for the expreſs purpoſe of adjuſting amicably and fairly all ſuch queſtions between the two nations, and poſtponed on that occaſion to accommodate the views of his majeſty's government, furniſhed a ſuitable opportunity for ſuch an intimation, while it could not otherwiſe than increaſe the claim to it.

In this communication I have made no comment on the difference which is obſervable in the import of the ſeveral orders which regulated, at different times, the ſeizure of neutral veſſels, ſome of which were more moderate than others. It is proper, however, to remark here, that thoſe which were iſſued, or even that any had been iſſued ſince the commencement of the preſent war, were circumſtances not known till very lately : On principle it is acknowledged, that they are to be viewed in the ſame light, and it has been my object to examine them by that ſtandard, without going into detail, or making the ſhades of difference between them. I have made the examination with that freedom and candour which belong to a ſubject of very high importance to the United States, the reſult of which has been, as I preſume, to prove, that all the orders are repugnant to the law of nations,and that the late condemnations which have revived the pretenſions on the part of *Great Britain*, are not only repugnant to that law, but to the underſtanding which it was ſuppoſed had taken place between the two powers, reſpecting the commerce in queſtion.

I cannot conclude this note without adverting to the other topicks depending between our governments which it is alſo much wiſhed to adjuſt at this time. Theſe are well known to your lordſhip, and it is therefore unneceſſary to add any thing on them at preſent. With a view to perpetuate the friendſhip of the two nations, no unneceſſary cauſe of colliſion ſhould be left open. Thoſe reverted to, are believed to be of this kind, ſuch as the caſe of boundary; the impreſſment of ſeamen, &c. ſince it is preſumed there can be no real conflicting intereſt between them on thoſe points. The general commercial relation may then be adjuſted or poſtponed as may be moſt conſiſtent with the views of his majeſty's government. On that point alſo it is believed that it will not be difficult to make ſuch an arrangement as, by giving ſufficient ſcope to the reſources, to the induſtry and the enterprize of the people of both countries, may prove highly and reciprocally advantageous to them. In the topick of impreſſment, however, the motive is more urgent. In that line the rights of the United States have been ſo long trampled under foot, the feelings of humanity in reſpect to the ſufferers, and the honour of their government, even in their own ports, ſo often outraged, that the aſtoniſhed world may begin to doubt, whether the patience with which theſe injuries have been borne ought to be attributed to generous or unworthy motives: Whether the United States merit the rank to which in other reſpects they are juſtly entitled among independent powers, or have already, in the very morn of their political career, loſt their energy, and become degenerate. The United States are not inſenſible that their conduct has expoſed them to ſuch ſuſpicions, though they well know that they have not merited them. They are aware, from the ſimilarity in the perſon, in the manners, and above all, the identity of the language, which is common to the people of both nations, that the ſubject is a difficult one; they are equally aware, that to Great-Britain alſo it is a delicate one, and they have been willing, in ſeeking an arrangement of this important intereſt, to give a proof, by the mode, of their very ſincere deſire to cheriſh the relations of friendſhip with her. I have only to add, that I ſhall be happy to meet your lordſhip on theſe points, as ſoon as you can make it convenient to you. I have the honour to be, with high conſideration, your lordſhip's moſt obedient ſervant.

(Signed) JAMES MONROE.

EXTRACT OF A LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE TO MR. MONROE, RELATIVE TO IMPRESSMENTS, DATED 5TH JANUARY, 1804.

WE conſider a neutral flag, on the high ſeas, as a ſafeguard to thoſe ſailing under it. Great Britain, on the contrary, aſſerts a right to ſearch for, and ſeize her own ſubjects; and under that cover, as cannot but happen, are often ſeized and taken off, citizens of the United Stats, and citizens or ſubjects of other neutral countries, navigating the high ſeas, under the protection of the American flag.

Were the right of Great Britain, in this caſe, not denied, the abuſes flowing from it would juſtify the United States in claiming and expecting a diſcontinuance of its exerciſe. But the right is denied, and on the beſt grounds.

Although Great Britian has not yet adopted, in the ſame latitude with moſt other nations, the immunities of a neutral flag, ſhe will not deny the general freedom of the high ſeas, and of neutral veſſels navigating them, with ſuch exceptions only as are annexed to it by the law of nations. She muſt produce then ſuch an exception in the law of nations, in favour of the right ſhe contends for. But in what written and received authority will ſhe find it? In what uſage except her own will it be found? She will find in both, that a neutral veſſel does not protect certain objects denominated contraband of war, including enemies ſerving in the war, nor articles going into a blockaded port, nor as ſhe has maintained, and as we have not conteſted, enemy's property of any kind. But no where will ſhe find an exception to this freedom of the ſeas, and of neutral flags, which juſtifies the taking away of any perſon not an enemy, in military ſervice, found on board a neutral veſſel.

If treaties, Britiſh as well as others, are to be conſulted on this ſubject, it will equally appear, that no countenance to the practice can be found in them. Whilſt they admit a contraband of war, by enumerating its articles, and the effect of a real blockade by defining it, in no inſtance do they affirm or imply a right in any ſovereign to enforce his claims to the allegiance of his ſubjects, on board neutral veſſels on the high ſeas. On the contrary, whenever a belligerent claim againſt perſons on board a neutral veſſel, is referred to in treaties, enemies in military ſervice alone are excepted from the general immunity of perſons in that ſituation; and this exception confirms the immunity of thoſe who are not included in it.

It is not then from the law or the uſage of nations, nor from the tenor of treaties, that any ſanction can be derived for the practice in queſtion. And ſurely it will not be pretended that the ſovereignty of any nation extends, in any caſe whatever, beyond its own dominions, and its own veſſels on the high ſeas. Such a doctrine would give juſt claim to all nations, and more than any thing would countenance the imputation of aſpiring to an univerſal empire of the ſeas. It would be the leſs admiſſible too, as it would be applicable to times of peace, as well as to times of war, and to property as well as to perſons. If the law of allegiance, which is a municipal law, be in force at all on the high ſeas, on board foreign veſſels, it muſt be ſo at all times there, as it is within its acknowledged ſphere. If the reaſon alleged for it be good in time of war, namely, that the ſovereign has then a right to the ſervice of all his ſubjects, it muſt be good at all times, becauſe at all times, he has the ſame right to their ſervice. War is not the only occaſion for which he may want their ſervices, nor is external danger the only danger againſt which their ſervices may be required for his ſecurity. Again; if the authority of a municipal law can operate on perſons in foreign veſſels on the high ſeas, becauſe within the dominion of their ſovereign, they would be ſubject to that law, and are violating that law by being in that ſituation, how reject the inference that the authority of a municipal law may equally be enforced, on board foreign veſſels, on the high ſeas, againſt articles of property exported in violation of ſuch a law, or belonging to the country from which it was exported? And thus every commercial regulation, in time of peace too, as well as of war, would be made obligatory on foreigners and their veſſels, not only whilſt within the dominion of the ſovereign making the regulation, but in every ſea, and at every diſtance where an armed veſſel might meet with them. Another inference deſerves attention. If the ſubjects of one ſovereign may be taken by force from the veſſels of another, on the high ſeas, the right of taking them when found, implies the right of ſearching for them; a vexation of commerce, eſpecially in time of peace, which has not yet been attempted, and which for that as well as other reaſons, may be regarded as contradicting the principle from which it would flow.

Taking reaſon and juſtice for the teſts of this practice, it is peculiarly indefenſible; becauſe it deprives the deareſt rights of perſons of a regular trial, to which the moſt inconſiderable article of property captured on the high ſeas is entitled; and leaves their deſtiny to the will of an officer, ſometimes cruel, often ignorant, and generally intereſted by his want of mariners, in his own deciſions. Whenever property found in a neutral veſſel is ſuppoſed to be liable on any grounds to capture and condemnation, the rule in all caſes is that the queſtion ſhall not be decided by the captor, but be carried before a legal tribunal, where a regular trial may be had, and where the captor himſelf is liable to damages, for an abuſe of his power. Can it be reaſonable then, or juſt, that a belligerent commander who is thus reſtricted, and thus reſponſible in a caſe of mere property of trivial amount, ſhould be permitted, without recurring to any tribunal whatever, to examine the crew of a neutral veſſel, to decide the important queſtion of their reſpective allegiances, and to carry that deciſion into inſtant execution, by forcing every individual he may chuſe, into a ſervice abhorrent to his feelings, cutting him off from his moſt tender connections, expoſing his mind and his perſon to the moſt humiliating diſcipline, and his life itſelf to the greateſt dangers? Reaſon, juſtice, and humanity unite in proteſting againſt ſo extravagant a proceeding. And what is the pretext for it? It is that the ſimilarity of language and of features between American citizens and Britiſh ſubjects, are ſuch as not eaſily to be diſtinguiſhed; and that without this arbitrary and ſummary authority to make the diſtinction, Britiſh ſubjects would eſcape, under the name of American citizens, from the duty which they owe to their ſovereign. Is then the difficulty of diſtinguiſhing a mariner of one country from the mariner of the other, and the importance of his ſervices, a good plea for referring the queſtion whether he belongs to the one or to the other, to an arbitrary deciſion on the the ſpot, by an intereſted and unreſponſible officer? In all other caſes, the difficulty and the importance of queſtions are conſidered as reaſons for requiring greater care and formality in inveſtigating them, and greater ſecurity for a right deciſion of them. To ſay that precautions of this ſort are incompatible with the object, is to admit that the object is unjuſtifiable; ſince the only means by which it can be purſued are ſuch as cannot be juſtified.

The evil takes a deeper die, when viewed in its practice as well as its principles. Were it allowable that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould be taken out of American veſſels on the high ſeas, it might at leaſt be required that the proof of their allegiance ſhould lie on the Britiſh ſide. This obvious and juſt rule is, however, reverſed; and every ſeaman on board, though going from an American port, and ſailing under the American flag, and ſometimes even ſpeaking an idiom proving him not to be a Britiſh ſubject, is preſumed to be ſuch, unleſs ſhewn to be an American citizen. It may ſafely be affirmed that this is an outrage and an indignity which has no precedent, and which Great Britain would be among the laſt nations in the world to ſuffer, if offered to her own ſubjects, and her own flag. Nor is it always againſt the right preſumption alone which is in favour of the citizenſhip correſponding with the flag, that the violence is committed. Not unfrequently it takes place in defiance of the moſt poſitive proof, certified in due form by an American officer. Let it not be ſaid, that, in granting to American ſeamen this protection for their rights as ſuch, the point is yielded, that the proof lies on the American ſide; and that the want of it in the preſcribed form juſtifies the inference that the ſeamen is not of American allegiance. It is diſtinctly to be underſtood, that the certificate, uſually called a protection to American ſeamen, is not meant to protect them under their own, or even any other neutral flag on the high ſeas. We can never admit, that in ſuch a ſituation, any other protection is required for them, than the neutral flag itſelf on the high ſeas. The document is given to prove their real character, in ſituations to which neither the law of nations, nor the law of their own country, are applicable; in other words, to protect them within the juriſdiction of the Britiſh laws, and to ſecure to them, within every other juriſdiction the rights and immunities due to them. If, in the courſe of their navigation even on the high ſeas, the document ſhould have the effect of repelling wrongs of any ſort, it is an incidental advantage only, of which they avail themſelves, and is by no means to be miſconſtrued into a right to exact ſuch a proof, or to make any diſadvantageous inference from the want of it.

Were it even admitted that certificates for protection might be juſtly required in time of war from American ſeamen, they could only be required in caſes where the lapſe of time from its commencement had given an opportunity for the American ſeamen to provide themſelves with ſuch a document. Yet it is certain, that, in a variety of inſtances, ſeamen have been impreſſed from American veſſels, on the plea that they had not this proof of citizenſhip, when the dates and places of the impreſſments demonſtrated the impoſſibility of their knowing, in time to provide the proof, that a ſtate of war had rendered it neceſſary.

Whether, therefore, we conſult the law of nations, the tenor of treaties, or the dictates of reaſon and juſtice, no warrant, no pretext can be found for the

Britiſh practice of making impreſſments from American veſſels on the high ſeas.

Great-Britain has the leſs to ſay in excuſe for this practice, as it is in direct contradiction to the principles on which ſhe proceeds in other caſes. Whilſt ſhe claims and ſeizes on the high ſeas, her own ſubjects, voluntarily ſerving in American veſſels, ſhe has conſtantly given, when ſhe could give, as a reaſon for not diſcharging from her ſervice American citizens, that they had voluntarily engaged in it. Nay, more, whilſt ſhe impreſſes her own ſubjects from the American ſervice, although they may have been ſettled and married, and even naturaliſed in the United States, ſhe conſtantly refuſes to releaſe from her's, American citizens impreſſed into it, whenever ſhe can give for a reaſon, that they were either ſettled or married within her dominions. Thus, when the voluntary conſent of the individual favours her pretenſions, ſhe pleads the validity of that conſent. When the voluntary conſent of the individual ſtands in the way of her pretenſions, it goes for nothing! When marriage or reſidence can be pleaded in her favour, ſhe avails herſelf of the plea. When marriage and reſidence, and even naturalization are againſt her, no reſpect whatever is paid to either! She takes by force her own ſubjects, voluntarily ſerving in our veſſels; ſhe keeps by force American citizens, involuntarily ſerving in hers. More flagrant inconſiſtencies cannot be imagined.

Notwithſtanding the powerful motives which ought to be felt by the Britiſh government to relinquiſh a practice which expoſes it to ſo many reproaches, it is foreſeen that objections of different ſorts will be preſſed on you. You will be told firſt, of the great number of Britiſh ſeamen in the American trade, and of the neceſſity for their ſervices in time of war and danger. Secondly, of the right and the prejudice of the Britiſh nation, with reſpect to what are called the Britiſh or narrow ſeas, where its domain would be abandoned by the general ſtipulation required. Thirdly, of the uſe which would be made of ſuch a ſanctuary as that of American veſſels, for deſertions, and traitorous communications to her enemies, eſpecially acroſs the channel to France.

1ſt. With reſpect to the Britiſh ſeamen ſerving in our trade, it may be remarked, firſt, that the number, though conſiderable, is probably leſs than may be ſuppoſed. Secondly, that what is wrong in itſelf cannot be made right by conſiderations of expediency or advantage. Thirdly, that it is proved by the fact, that the number of real Britiſh ſubjects gained by the practice in queſtion, is of inconſiderable importance, even in the ſcale of advantage. The annexed report to congreſs on the ſubject of impreſſments, with the addition of ſuch caſes as may be in the hands of Mr. Erving, will verify the remark in its application to the preſent war. The ſtatement made by his predeceſſor during the laſt war, and which is alſo annexed, is in the ſame view ſtill more concluſive. The ſtatement comprehends not only all the applications made by him in the firſt inſtance, for the liberation of impreſſed ſeamen, between the month of June, 1797, and September, 1801, but many alſo which had been made previous to this agency by Mr. Pinckney and Mr. King, and which it was neceſſary for him to renew. Theſe applications therefore may fairly be conſidered as embracing the greater part of the period of the war; and as applications are known to be pretty indiſcriminately made, they may further be conſidered as embracing, if not the whole, the far greater part of the impreſſments, thoſe of Britiſh ſubjects as well as others. Yet the reſult exhibits 2,059 caſes only, and of this number 102 ſeamen only, detained as being Britiſh ſubjects, which is leſs than 1-20th of the number impreſſed, and 1,142 diſcharged or ordered to be ſo, as not being Britiſh ſubjects, which is more than half of the whole number, leaving 805 for further proof, with the ſtrongeſt preſumption that the greater part, if not the whole, were Americans or other aliens, whoſe proof of citizenſhip had been loſt or deſtroyed, or whoſe ſituation would account for the difficulties and delays in producing it. So that it is certain, that for all the Britiſh ſeamen gained by this violent proceeding, more than an equal number who were not ſo were the victims; it is highly probable that for every Britiſh ſeaman ſo gained, a number of others, leſs than 10 for one, muſt have been the victims, and it is even poſſible that this number may have exceeded the proportion of 20 to one.

It cannot therefore be doubted, that the acquiſition of Britiſh ſeamen by theſe impreſſments, whatever may be its advantage, is loſt in the wrong done to Americans ignorantly or wilfully miſtaken for Britiſh ſubjects, in the jealouſy and ill-will excited among all maritime nations by an adherence to ſuch a practice, and in the particular provocation to meaſures of redreſs on the part of the United States, not leſs diſagreeable to them, than embarraſſing to Great-Britain, and which may threaten the good underſtanding which ought to be faithfully cultivated by both. The copy of a bill brought into Congreſs under the influence of violations committed on our flag, gives force to this latter conſideration. Whether it will paſs into a law, and at the preſent ſeſſion, is more than can yet be ſaid. As there is every reaſon to believe that it has been propoſed with reluctance, it will probably not be purſued into effect, if any hope can be ſupported of a remedy, by an amicable arrangement between the two nations.

There is a further conſideration which out to have weight in this queſtion. Although the Britiſh ſeamen employed in carrying on American commerce, be in ſome reſpects loſt to their own nation, yet ſuch is the intimate and extenſive connection of this commerce, direct and circuitous, with the commerce, the manufactures, the revenue and the general reſources of the Britiſh nation, that in other reſpects its mariners, on board American veſſels, may truly be ſaid to be rendering it the moſt valuable ſervices. It would not be extravagant to make it a queſtion, whether Great Britain would not ſuffer more by withdrawing her ſeamen from the merchant veſſels of the United States, than her enemies would ſuffer from the addition of them to the crews of her ſhips of war and cruiſers.

Should any difficulty be ſtarted concerning ſeamen born within the Britiſh dominions, and naturalized by the United States ſince the treaty of 1783, you may remove it by obſerving : Firſt, that very few, if any, ſuch naturalizations can take place, the law here requiring a preparatory reſidence of five years, with notice of the intention to become a citizen entered of record two years before the laſt neceſſary formality, beſides a regular proof of good moral character, conditions little likely to be complied with by ordinary ſea-faring perſons. Secondly, that a diſcontinuance of impreſſments on the high ſeas will preclude an actual colliſion between the interfering claims. Within the juriſdiction of each nation, and in their reſpective veſſels on the high ſeas, each will enforce the allegiance which it claims. In other ſituations the individuals doubly claimed, will be within a juriſdiction independent of both nations.

Secondly. The Britiſh pretenſions to domain over the narrow ſeas are ſo obſolete, and ſo indefenſible, that they never would have occurred as a probable objection in this caſe, if they had not actually fruſtrated an arrangement ſettled by Mr. King with the Britiſh miniſtry on the ſubject of impreſſments from American veſſels on the high ſeas. At the moment when the articles were expected to be ſigned, an exception of the "narrow ſeas" was urged and inſiſted on by lord St. Vincent ; and being utterly inadmiſſible on our part, the negociation was abandoned.

The objection in itſelf has certainly not the ſlighteſt foundation. The time has been, indeed, when England not only claimed, but exerciſed pretenſions ſcarcely inferiour to full ſovereignty over the ſeas ſurrounding the Britiſh iſles, and even as far as Cape Finiſterre to the ſouth, and Van Staten, in Norway, to the north, It was a time, however, when reaſon had little ſhare in determining the law, and the intercourſe of nations ; when power alone decided queſtions of right, and, when the ignorance and want of concert among other maritime countries facilitated ſuch an uſurpation. The progreſs of civilization and information has produced a change in all thoſe reſpects, and no principle in the code of publick law, is at preſent better eſtabliſhed, than the common freedom of the ſeas beyond a very limited diſtance from the territories waſhed by them. This diſtance is not, indeed, fixed with abſolute preciſion. It is varied in a ſmall degree by written authorities, and perhaps it may be reaſonably varied in ſome degree by local peculiarities. But the greateſt diſtance which would now be liſtened to any where, would make a ſmall proportion of the narroweſt part of the narroweſt ſeas in queſtion.

What are, in fact, the prerogatives claimed and exerciſed by Great Britain over theſe ſeas? If they were really a part of her domain, her authority would be the ſame there as within her other domain. Foreign veſſels would be ſubject to all the laws and regulations framed for them, as much as if they were within the harbours or rivers of the country. Nothing of this ſort is pretended. Nothing of this ſort would be tolerated. The only inſtances in which theſe ſeas are diſtinguiſhed from other ſeas, or in which Great Britain enjoys within them, any diſtinction over other nations, are, firſt, the compliment paid by other flags to her's. Secondly, the extenſion of her territorial juriſdiction in certain caſes to the diſtance of four leagues from the coaſt. The firſt is a relick of ancient uſurpation, which has thus long eſcaped the correction, which modern and more enlightened times have applied to other uſurpations. The prerogative has been often conteſted, however, even at the expenſe of bloody wars, and is ſtill borne with ill will and impatience by her neighbours. At the laſt treaty of peace at Amiens, the abolition of it was repeatedly and ſtrongly preſſed by France; and it is not improbable, that at no remote day it will follow the fate of the title of "King of France," ſo long worn by the Britiſh monarchs, and at length ſo properly ſacrificed to the leſſons of a magnanimous wiſdom. As far as this homage to the Britiſh flag has any foundation at preſent, it reſts merely on long uſage and long acquieſcence, which are conſtrued, as in a few other caſes of maritime claims, into the effect of a general though tacit convention. The ſecond inſtance is the extenſion of the territorial juriſdiction to four leagues from the ſhore. This too, as far as the diſtance may exceed that which is generally allowed, reſts on a like foundation, ſtrengthened, perhaps, by the local facility of ſmuggling, and the peculiar intereſt which Great Britain has in preventing a practice affecting ſo deeply her whole ſyſtem of revenue, commerce, and manufactures: whilſt the limitation itſelf to four leagues, neceſſarily implies, that beyond that diſtance no territorial juriſdiction is aſſumed.

But whatever may be the origin or the value of theſe prerogatives over foreign flags in one caſe, and within a limited portion of theſe ſeas in another, it is obvious that neither of them will be violated by the exemption of American veſſels from impreſſments, which are no wiſe connected with either; having never been made on the pretext either of withholding the wonted homage to the Britiſh flag, or of ſmuggling in defiance of Britiſh laws.

This extenſion of the Britiſh law to four leagues from the ſhore, is inferred from an act of parliament paſſed in the year 1736 (9 G. 2 c. 35) the terms of which comprehend all veſſels foreign as well as Britiſh. It is poſſible however, that the former are conſtructively excepted. Should your inquiries aſcertain this to be the caſe, you will find yourſelf on better ground, than the conceſſion here made.

With reſpect to the compliment paid to the Britiſh flag, it is alſo poſſible that more is here conceded than you may find to be neceſſary. After the peace of 1783 this compliment was peremptorily withheld by France, in ſpite of the remonſtrances of Great Britain; and it remains for your inquiry, whether it did not continue to be refuſed, notwithſtanding the failure at Amiens to obtain from Great Britain a formal renunciation of the claim.

From every view of the ſubject, it is reaſonable to expect that the exception of the narrow ſeas, from the ſtipulation againſt impreſſments, will not be inflexibly maintained. Should it be ſo, your negotiation will be at an end. The truth is, that ſo great a proportion of our trade, direct and circuitous, paſſes through thoſe channels, and ſuch is its peculiar expoſure in them to the wrong practiſed, that with ſuch an exception, any remedy would be very partial. And we can never conſent to purchaſe a partial remedy, by confirming a general evil, and by ſubjecting ourſelves to our own reproaches, as well as to thoſe of other nations.

Third, It appears, as well by a letter from Mr. Thorntorn, in anſwer to one from me, of both which copies are encloſed, as from converſations with Mr. Merry, that the facility which would be given, particularly in the Britiſh channel, by the immunity claimed for American veſſels, to the eſcape of traitors, and the deſertion of others whoſe ſervices in the time of war may be particularly important to an enemy, forms one of the pleas for the Britiſh practice of examining American crews, and will be one of the objections to a formal relinquiſhment of it.

This plea, like all others, admits a ſolid and ſatisfactory reply. In the firſt place, if it could prevail at all againſt the neutral claim, it would authorize the ſeizure of the perſons deſcribed only, and in veſſels bound to a hoſtile country only; whereas the practice of impreſſing is applied to perſons, few or any of whom are alleged to be of either deſcription, and to veſſels whitherſoever bound, even to Great Britain herſelf. In the next place, it is not only a preference of a ſmaller object on one ſide to a greater object on the other; but a ſacrifice of right on one ſide to expediency on the other ſide.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, COMMUNICATING DISCOVERIES MADE IN EXPLORING THE MISSOURI, RED RIVER, AND WASHITA, BY CAPTAINS LEWIS AND CLARK, DR. SIBLEY, AND MR. DUNBAR, WITH A STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF THE COUNTRIES ADJACENT.

To the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States.

IN purſuance of a meaſure propoſed to Congreſs by a meſſage of January 18th, 1803, and ſanctioned by their appropriation for carrying it into execution, captain Meriwether Lewis, of the firſt regiment of infantry, was appointed, with a party of men, to explore the river Miſſouri, from its mouth to its ſource, and, croſſing the highlands by the ſhorteſt portage, to ſeek the beſt water communication thence to the Pacific ocean; and lieutenant Clarke was appointed ſecond in command. They were to enter into conference with the Indian nations on their route, with a view to the eſtabliſhment of commerce with them. They entered the Miſſouri, May 14th, 1804, and on the firſt of November took up their winter quarters near the Mandan towns, 1609 miles above the mouth of the river, in latitude 47 deg. 21 min. 47 ſec. north, and longitude 99 deg. 24 min. 45 ſec. weſt from Greenwich. On the 8th of April, 1805, they proceeded up the river in purſuance of the objects preſcribed to them. A letter of the preceding day, April 7, from captain Lewis, is herewith communicated. During his ſtay among the Mandans, he had been able to lay down the Miſſouri, according to courſes and diſtances taken on his paſſage up it, corrected by frequent obſervations of longitude and latitude; and to add to the actual ſurvey of this portion of the river, a general map of the country between the Miſſiſippi and Pacific, from the 34th to the 54th degrees of latitude. Theſe additions are from information collected from Indians with whom he had opportunities of communicating, during his journey and reſidence with them. Copies of this map are now preſented to both houſes of Congreſs. With theſe I communicate alſo a ſtatiſtical view, procured and forwarded by him, of the Indian nations inhabiting the territory of Louiſiana, and the countries adjacent to its northern and weſtern borders; of their commerce, and of other intereſting circumſtances reſpecting them.

In order to render the ſtatement as complete as may be, of the Indians inhabiting the country weſt of the Miſſiſippi, I add doctor Sibley's account of thoſe reſiding in and adjacent to the territory of Orleans.

I communicate alſo, from the ſame perſon, an account of the Red river, according to the beſt information he had been able to collect.

Having been diſappointed, after conſiderable preparation, in the purpoſe of ſending an exploring party up that river, in the ſummer of 1804, it was thought beſt to employ the autumn of that year in procuring a knowledge of an intereſting branch of the river called the Waſhita. This was undertaken under the direction of Mr. Dunbar, of Natchez, a citizen of diſtinguiſhed ſcience, who had aided, and continues to aid us, with his diſintereſted and valuable ſervices in the proſecution of theſe enterprizes. He aſcended the river to the remarkable hot ſprings near it, in latitude 34 deg. 31 min. 4 ſec. 16, longitude 92 deg. 50 min. 45 ſec. weſt from Greenwich, taking its courſes and diſtances, and correcting them by frequent celeſtial obſervations. Extracts from his obſervations, and copies of his map of the river, from its mouth to the hot ſprings, make part of the preſent communications. The examination of the Red river itſelf is but now commencing.

TH: JEFFERSON.

February, 19, 1806.

Extract of a letter from Captain Meriwether Lewis to the Preſident of the United States, dated

FORT MANDAN, *April*, 17*th*, 1805.

Dear Sir,

HEREWITH encloſed you will receive an invoice of certain articles, which I have forwarded to you from this place. Among other articles you will obſerve, by reference to the invoice, 67 ſpecimens of earths, ſalts, and minerals, and 60 ſpecimens of plants; theſe are accompanied by their reſpective labels, expreſſing the days on which obtained, places where found, and alſo their virtues and properties, when known. By means of theſe labels, reference may be made to the chart of the Miſſouri, forwarded to the ſecretary of war, on which the encampment of each day has been carefully marked: thus the places at which theſe ſpecimens have been obtained, may be eaſily pointed out, or again found, ſhould any of them prove valuable to the community on further inveſtigation.

You will alſo receive herewith encloſed, a part of capt. Clarke's private journal; the other part you will find encloſed in a ſeparate tin box. This journal will ſerve to give you the daily details of our progreſs and tranſactions.

I ſhall diſpatch a canoe with three perhaps four perſons from the extreme navigable point of the Miſſouri, or the portage between this river and the Columbia river, as either may firſt happen. By the return of this canoe, I ſhall ſend you my journal, and ſome one or two of the beſt of thoſe kept by my men. I have ſent a journal kept by one of the ſergeants, to captain Stoddard, my agent at St.Louis, in order as much as poſſible to multiply the chances of ſaving ſomething. We have encouraged our men to keep journals, and ſeven of them do, to whom in this reſpect we give every aſſiſtance in our power.

I have tranſmitted to the ſecretary at war every information relative to the geography of the country which we poſſeſs, together with a view of the Indian nations, containing information relative to them, on thoſe points with which I conceived it important that the government ſhould be informed.

By reference to the muſter rolls forwarded to the war department, you will ſee the ſtate of the party; in addition to which we have two interpreters, one negro man, ſervant to capt. Clarke; one Indian woman, wife to one of the interpreters, and a Mandan man, whom we take with a view to reſtore peace between the Snake Indians, and those in this neighborhood, amounting in total with ourselves to 33 persons. By means of the interpreters and Indians, we shall be enabled to converse with all the Indians that we shall probably meet with on the Missouri.

I have forwarded to the secretary at war my public accounts, rendered up to the present day. They have been much longer delayed than I had any idea they would have been, when we departed from the Illinois; but this delay, under the circumstances which I was compelled to act, has been unavoidable. The provision peroque and her crew, could not have been dismissed in time to have returned to St. Louis last fall, without evidently, in my opinion, hazarding the fate of the enterprise in which I am engaged; and I therefore did not hesitate to prefer the censure that I may have incurred by the detention of these papers, to that of risking in any degree the success of the expedition. To me the detention of these papers has formed a serious source of disquiet and anxiety; and the recollection of your particular charge to me on this subject, has made it still more poignant. I am fully aware of the inconvenience which must have arisen to the war department, from the want of these vouchers, previous to the last session of congress, but how to avert it was out of my power to devise.

From this place we shall send the barge and crew early to-morrow morning, with orders to proceed as expeditiously as possible to St. Louis; by her we send our dispatches, which I trust will get safe to hand. Her crew consists of ten able bodied men, well armed and provided with a sufficient stock of provision to last them to St. Louis. I have but little doubt but they will be fired on by the Siouxs; but they have pledged themselves to us that they will not yield while there is a man of them living. Our baggage is all embarked on board six small canoes, and two peroques; we shall set out at the same moment that we dispatch the barge. One, or perhaps both of these peroques, we shall leave at the falls of the Missouri, from whence we intend continuing our voyage in the canoes, and a peroque of skins, the frame of which was prepared at Harper's ferry. This peroque is now in a situation which will enable us to prepare it in the course of a few hours. As our vessels are now small, and the current of the river much more moderate, we calculate upon travelling at the rate of 20 or 25 miles per day, as far as the falls of the Missouri. Beyond this point, or the first range of rocky mountains, situated about 100 miles further, any calculation with respect to our daily progress, can be little more than bare conjecture. The circumstance of the Snake Indians possessing large quantities of horses, is much in our favour, as by means of horses the transportation of our baggage will be rendered easy and expeditious over land, from the Missouri to the Columbia river. Should this river not prove navigable where we first meet with it, our present intention is, to continue our march by land down the river, until it becomes so, or to the Pacific ocean. The map, which has been forwarded to the secretary of war, will give you the idea we entertain of the connection of these rivers, which has been formed from the corresponding testimony of a number of Indians, who have visited that country, and who have been separately and carefully examined on that subject, and we therefore think it entitled to some degree of confidence. Since our arrival at this place, we have subsisted principally on meat, with which our guns have supplied us amply, and have thus been enabled to reserve the parched meal, portable soup, and a considerable proportion of pork and flour, which we had intended for the more difficult parts of our voyage. If Indian information can be credited, the vast quantity of game with which the country abounds through which we are to pass, leaves us but little to apprehend from the want of food.

We do not calculate on completing our voyage within the present year, but expect to reach the Pacific ocean, and return as far as the head of the Missouri, or perhaps to this place, before winter. You may therefore expect me to meet you at Monticello in September, 1806. On our return we shall probably pass down the Yellow Stone river, which, from Indian information, waters one of the fairest portions of this continent.

I can see no material or probable obstruction to our progress, and entertain, therefore, the most sanguine hopes of complete success. As to myself, individually, I never enjoyed a more perfect state of good health than I have since we commenced our voyage. My inestimable friend and companion, captain Clarke, has also enjoyed good health generally. At this moment every individual of the party is in good health and excellent spirits, zealously attached to the enterprise, and anxious to proceed; not a whisper of discontent or murmur is to be heard among them; but all in unison act with the most perfect harmony. With such men I have every thing to hope, and but little to fear.

Be so good as to present my most affectionate regard to all my friends, and be assured of the sincere and unalterable attachment of

Your most obedient servant,
MERIWETHER LEWIS,
Capt. of 1st U. S. regiment of infantry.

TH: JEFFERSON,
President of the United States.

We very much regret, that it is not in our power to insert the communication from Captains LEWIS *&* CLARK; *it is extremely long and is quite as unintelligible without the assistance of a map: besides it would be very uninteresting to almost every reader, and therefore we shall proceed to the documents from Dr.* SIBLEY *and Mr.* DUNBAR, *which are mentioned in the President's message. These may gratify a variety of readers, besides the student of geography, and may assist the makers of maps in correcting the boundaries, divisions, &c. of the province of Louisiana.*

HISTORICAL SKETCHES OF THE SEVERAL INDIAN TRIBES IN LOUISIANA, SOUTH OF THE ARKANSA RIVER, AND BETWEEN THE MISSISSIPPI AND RIVER GRAND.

CADDOQUES, live about 35 miles west of the main branch of Red river, on a bayau or creek, called by them Sodo, which is navigable for peroques only within about six miles of their village, and that only in the rainy season. They are distant from Natchitoches about 120 miles, the nearest route by land, and in nearly a north west direction. They have lived where they now do only five years. The first year they moved there the small pox got amongst them and destroyed nearly one half of them; it was in the winter season, and they practised plunging into the creek on the first appearance of the eruption, and died in a few hours. Two years ago they had the measles, of which several more of them died. They formerly lived on the south bank of the river, by the course of the river 375 miles higher up, at a beautiful prairie, which has a clear lake of good water in the middle of it, surrounded by a pleasant and fertile country, which had been the residence of their ancestors from time immemorial.

They have a traditionary tale which not only the Caddos, but half a dozen other smaller nations believe in, who claim the honour of being descendants of the same family: they say, when all the world was drowned by a flood that inundated the whole country, the great spirit placed on an eminence, near this lake, one family of Caddoques, who alone were saved; from that family all the Indians originated.

The French, for many years before Louisiana was transferred to Spain, had, at this place, a fort and some soldiers; several French families were likewise settled in the vicinity, where they had erected a good flour mill with burr stones brought from France. These French families continued there till about

23 years ago, when they moved down and settled at Campti, on the Red river, about 20 miles above Natchitoches, where they now live; and the Indians left it about 14 years ago, on account of a dreadful sickness that visited them. They settled on the river nearly opposite where they now live, on a low place, but were driven thence on account of its overflowing, occasioned by a jam of timber choaking the river at a point below them.

The whole number, of what they call warriors of the ancient Caddo nation, is now reduced to about 100, who are looked upon somewhat like knights of Malta, or some distinguished military order. They are brave, despise danger or death, and boast that they have never shed white man's blood. Besides these, there are of old men and strangers who live amongst them, nearly the same number, but there are 40 or 50 more women than men. This nation has great influence over the Yattassees, Nandakoes, Nabadaches, Inies or Yachies, Nagogdoches, Keychies, Adaise and Natchitoches, who all speak the Caddo language, look up to them as their fathers, visit and intermarry among them, and join them in all their wars.

The Caddoques complain of the Choctaws encroaching upon their country; call them lazy, thievish, &c. There has been a misunderstanding between them for several years, and small hunting parties kill one another when they meet.

The Caddos raise corn, beans, pumpkins, &c. but the land on which they now live is prairie, of a white clay soil, very flat: their crops are subject to injury either by too wet or too dry a season. They have horses, but few of any other domestic animal, except dogs; most of them have guns and some have rifles: they and all the other Indians that we have any knowledge of, are at war with the Osages.

The country, generally, round the Caddos is hilly, not very rich; growth a mixture of oak, hickory and pine, interspersed with prairies, which are very rich generally, and fit for cultivation. There are creeks and springs of good water frequent.

YATTASSEES, live on Bayau Pierre, (or stony creek) which falls into Red river, western division, about 50 miles above Natchitoches. Their village is in a large prairie about half way between the Caddoques and Natchitoches, surrounded by a settlement of French families. The Spanish government, at present, exercise jurisdiction over this settlement, where they keep a guard of a non-commissioned officer and eight soldiers.

A few months ago, the Caddo chief with a few of his young men were coming to this place to trade, and came that way which is the usual road. The Spanish officer of the guard threatened to stop them from trading with the Americans, and told the chief if he returned that way with the goods he should take them from him: The chief and his party were very angry, and threatened to kill the whole guard, and told them that that road had been always theirs, and that if the Spaniards attempted to prevent their using it as their ancestors had always done, he would soon make it a bloody road. He came here, purchased the goods he wanted, and might have returned another way and avoided the Spanish guard, and was advised to do so; but he said he would pass by them, and let them attempt to stop him if they dared. The guard said nothing to him as he returned.

This settlement, till some few years ago, used to belong to the district of Natchitoches, and the rights to their lands given by the government of Louisiana, before it was ceded to Spain. Its now being under the government of Taxus, was only an agreement between the commandant of Natchitoches and the commandant of Nagogdoches. The French formerly had a station and factory there, and another on the *Sabine* river, nearly one hundred miles north west from the Bayau Pierre settlement. The Yattassees now say the French used to be their people and now the Americans.

But of the ancient Yattassees there are but eight men remaining, and twenty-five women, besides children; but a number of men of other nations have intermarried with them and live together. I paid a visit at their village last summer; there were about forty men of them altogether: their original language differs from any other; but now, all speak Caddo. They live on rich, land, raise plenty of corn, beans, pumpkins, tobacco, &c. have horses, cattle, hogs and poultry.

NANDAKOES, live on the Sabine river, 60 or 70 miles to the westward of the Yattassees, near where the French formerly had a station and factory. Their language is Caddo: about forty men only of them remaining. A few years ago they suffered very much by the small pox. They consider themselves the same as Caddos, with whom they intermarry, and are, occasionally, visiting one another in the greatest harmony: have the same manners, customs and attachments.

ADAIZE, live about 40 miles from Natchitoches, below the Yattassees, on a lake called Lac Macdon, which communicates with the division of Red river that passes by Bayau Pierre. They live at or near where their ancestors have lived from time immemorial. They being the nearest nation to the old Spanish fort, or Mission of Adaize, that place was named after them, being about 20 miles from them, to the south. There are now about 20 men of them remaining, but more women. Their language differs from all other, and is so difficult to speak or understand, that no nation can speak ten words of it; but they all speak Caddo, and most of them French, to whom they were always attached, and joined them against the Natchez Indians. After the massacre of Natchez, in 1798, while the Spaniards occupied the post of Adaize, their priests took much pains to proselyte these Indians to the Roman Catholic religion, but, I am informed, were totally unsuccessful.

ALICHE (commonly pronounced Eyeish) live near Nacogdoches, but are almost extinct, as a nation, not being more than 25 souls of them remaining: four years ago the small pox destroyed the greater part of them. They were, some years ago, a considerable nation, and lived on a bayau which bears their name, which the road from Natchitoch to Nacogdoches crosses, about 12 miles west of Sabine river, on which a few French and American families are settled: Their native language is spoken by no other nation, but they speak and understand Caddo, with whom they are in amity, often visiting one another.

KEYES, or KEYCHIES, live on the east bank of Trinity river, a small distance above where the road from Natchitoches to St. Antoine crosses it. There are of them 60 men: have their peculiar native language, but mostly now speak Caddo; intermarry with them, and live together in much harmony, formerly having lived near them, on the head waters of the Sabine. They plant corn and some other vegetables.

INIES, or TACHIES (called indifferently by both names.) From the latter name the name of the province of Tachus or Taxus is derived. The Inies live about 25 miles west of Natchitoches, on a small river a branch of Sabine, called the Naches. They are, like all their neighbors, diminishing; but have now 80 men. Their ancestors, for a long time, lived where they now do. Their language the same as that of the Caddos, with whom they are in great amity. These Indians have a good character, live on excellent land, and raise corn to sell.

NABEDACHES, live on the west side of the same river, about fifteen miles above them; have about the same number of men; speak the same language; live on the best of land; raise corn in plenty; have the same manners, customs and attachments.

BEDIES, are on the Trinity river, about 60 miles to the southward of Nacogdoches; have 100 men; are good hunters for deer, which are very large and plenty about them; plant, and make good crops of corn; language differs from all other, but speak Caddo; are a peaceable, quiet people, and have an excellent character for their honesty and punctuality.

ACCOKESAWS. Their ancient town and principal place of residence is on the west side of Colerado or Rio Rouge, about 200 miles south west of Nacogdoches, but often change their place of residence for a season; being near the bay make great use of fish, oysters, &c. kill a great many deer, which are the largest and fattest in the province; and their country is universally said to be inferior to no part of the province in soil, growth of timber, goodness of water, and beauty of surface; have a language peculiar to themselves, but have a mode of communication by dumb signs, which they all understand; number about 80 men. 30 or 40 years ago the Spaniards had a mission here, but broke it up, or moved it to Nacogdoches. They talk of resettling it, and speak in the highest terms of the country.

MAYES, live on a large creek called St. Gabriel, on the bay of St. Bernard, near the mouth of Gaudaloupe river: are estimated at 200 men; never at peace with the Spaniards, towards whom they are said to possess a fixed hatred, but profess great friendship for the French, to whom they have been strongly attacked since Mons. de Salle landed in their neighborhood. The place where there is a talk of the Spaniards opening a new port, and making a settlement, is near them; where the party, with the governor of St. Antoine, who were there last fall to examine it, say they found the remains of a French block house; some of the cannon now at Labahie are said to have been brought from that place, and known by the engravings now to be seen on them.

The French speak highly of these Indians for their extreme kindness and hospitality to all Frenchmen who have been amongst them: have a language of their own, but speak Attakapa, which is the language of their neighbors the Carankouas; they have likewise a way of conversing by signs.

CARANKOUAS, live on an island, or peninsula, in the bay of St. Bernard, in length about ten miles, and five in breadth; the soil is extremely rich and pleasant; on one side of which there is a high bluff, or mountain of coal, which has been on fire for many years, affording always a light at night, and a strong, thick smoke by day, by which vessels are sometimes deceived and lost on the shoaly coast, which shoals are said to extend nearly out of sight of land. From this burning coal there is emitted a gummy substance the Spainards call *cheta*, which is thrown on the shore by the surf, and collect-by them in considerable quantities, which they are fond of chewing; it has the appearance and consistence of pitch, of a strong, aromatic, and not disagreeable smell. These Indians are irreconcileable enemies to the Spaniards, always at war with them, and kill them whenever they can. The Spaniards call them cannibals, but the French give them a different character, who have always been treated kindly by them since Mons de. Salle and his party were in their neighborhood. They are said to be 500 men strong, but I have not been able to estimate their numbers from any very accurate information; in a short time expect to be well informed. They speak the Attakapa language; are friendly and kind to all other Indians, and, I presume, are much like all others, notwithstanding what the Spaniards say of them, for nature is every where the same.

Last summer an old Spaniard came to me from Labahie, a journey of about 500 miles, to have a barbed arrow taken out of his shoulder, that one of these Indians had shot in it. I found it under his shoulder-blade, near nine inches, and had to cut a new place to get at the point of it, in order to get it out the contrary way from that in which it had entered: it was made of a piece of an iron hoop, with wings like a fluke and an inche.

CANCES, are a very numerous nation, consisting of a great many different tribes, occupying different parts of the country, from the bay of St. Bernard, cross river Grand, towards La Vera Cruz. They are not friendly to the Spaniards, and generally kill them when they have an opportunity. They are attached to the French; are good hunters, principally using the bow. They are very particular in their dress, which is made of neatly dressed leather; the women wear a long loose robe, resembling that of a Franciscan friar; nothing but their heads and feet are to be seen. The dress of the men is straight leather leggings, resembling pantaloons, and a leather hunting shirt or frock. No estimate can be made of their number.

Thirty or forty years ago the Spaniards used to make slaves of them when they could take them; a considerable number of them were brought to Natchitoches and sold to the French inhabitants at 40 or 50 dollars a head, and a number of them are still living here, but are now free. About 20 years ago an order came from the king of Spain that no more Indians should be made slaves, and those that were enslaved should be emancipated; after which some of the women who had been servants in good families, and taught spinning, sewing, &c. as well as managing household affairs, married mestiffs of the country, and became respectable, well behaved women, and have now growing up decent families of children: have a language peculiar to themselves, and are understood by signs, by all others. They are in amity with all other Indians except the Hietans.

TANKAWAYS (or TANKS, as the French call them) have no land, nor claim the exclusive right to any, nor have any particular place of abode; but are always moving, alternately occupying the country watered by the Trinity, Braces, and Colerado, towards St. a Fé. Resemble, in their dress, the Cances and Hietans, but all in one horde or tribe. Their number of men is estimated at about 200; are good hunters; kill buffaloe and deer with the bow; have the best breed of horses; are alternately friends and enemies of the Spaniards. An old trader lately informed me that he had received 5000 deer skins from them in one year, exclusive of tallow, rugs and tongues. They plant nothing, but live upon wild fruits and flesh: are strong, athletic people, and excellent horsemen.

TAWAKENOES, or THREE CANES. They are called by both names indifferently; live on the west side of the Braces, but are often, for some months at a time, lower down than their usual place of residence, in the great prairie at the Tortuga, or Turtle, called so from its being a hill in the prairie, which at a distance appears in the form of a turtle, upon which there are some remarkable springs of water. Their usual residence is about 200 miles to the westward of Nacogdoches, towards St. a Fè. They are estimated at 200 men: are good hunters; have guns, but hunt principally with the bow: are supplied with goods from Nacogdoches, and pay for them in rugs, tongues, tallow and skins. They speak the same language of the Panis, or Towiaches, and pretend to have descended from the same ancestors.

PANIS, or TOWIACHES. The French call them Panis, and the Spaniards Towiaches; the latter is the proper Indian name. They live on the south bank of Red River; by the course of the river upwards of 800 miles above Natchitoches, and by land, by the nearest path, is estimated at about 340. They have two towns near together; the lower town, where the chief lives, is called Niteheta, and the other is called Towaahach. They call their present chief the Great Bear. They are at war with the Spaniards, but friendly to those French and American hunters who have lately been among them. They are likewise at war with the Osages, as are every other nation. For many hundreds of miles round them, the country is rich prairie, covered with luxuriant grass, which is green summer and winter, with skirts of wood on the river bank, by the springs and creeks.

They have many horses and mules. They raise more corn, pumpkins, beans, and tobacco, than they want for their own consumption; the surplusage they exchange with the Hietans for buffaloe rugs, horses and mules: the pumpkins they cut round in their shreads, and when it is in a state of dryness that it is so tough it will not break, but bend, they plait and work it into large mats, in which state they sell it to the Hietans, who, as they travel, cut off and eat it as they want it. Their tobacco they manufacture and cut as fine as tea, which is put into leather bags of a certain size, and is likewise an article of trade. They have but few guns, and very little ammunition; what they have they keep for war, and hunt with the bow. Their meat is principally buffaloe; seldom kill a deer, though they are so plenty they come into their villages, and about their houses, like a domestic animal: elk, bear, wolves, antelope and wild hogs are likewise plenty in their country, and white rabbits, or hares, as well as the common rabbit: white bears sometimes come down amongst them, and wolves of all colours. The men generally go entirely naked, and the women nearly so, only wearing a small flap of a piece of a skin.—— They have a number of Spaniards amongst them, of fair complexion, taken from the settlement of St. a Fé when they were children, who live as they do, and have no knowledge of where they came from. Their language differs from that of any other nation, the Tawakenoes excepted. Their present number of men is estimated at about 400. A great number of them, four years ago, were swept off by the small pox.

HIETANS, or Comanches, who are likewise called by both names, have no fixed place of residence; have neither towns nor villages; divided into so many hordes or tribes, that they have scarcely any knowledge of one another. No estimate of their numbers can well be made. They never remain in the same place more than a few days, but follow the buffaloe, the flesh of which is their principal food. Some of them occasionally purchase of the Panis, corn, beans and pumpkins; but they are so numerous, any quantity of these articles the Panis are able to supply them with, must make but a small proportion of their food. They have tents made of neatly dressed skins, fashioned in form of a cone, sufficiently roomy for a family of ten or twelve persons; those of the chiefs will contain occasionally 50 or 60 persons. When they stop, their tents are pitched in very exact order, so as to form regular streets and squares, which in a few minutes has the appearance of a town, raised, as it were, by inchantment; and they are equally dexterous in striking their tents and preparing for a march when the signal is given; to every tent two horses or mules are allotted, one to carry the tent, and another the poles or sticks, which are neatly made of red cedar; they all travel on horseback. Their horses they never turn loose to graze, but always keep them tied with a long cabras or halter; and every two or three days they are obliged to move on account of all the grass near them being eaten up, they have such numbers of horses. They are good horsemen and have good horses, most of which are bred by themselves, and being accustomed from when very young to be handled, they are remarkably docile and gentle. They sometimes catch wild horses, which are every where amongst them in immense droves. They hunt down the buffaloe on horseback, and kill them either with the bow or a sharp stick like a spear, which they carry in their hands. They are generally at war with the Spaniards, often committing depredations upon the inhabitants of St. a Fé and St. Antoine; but have always been friendly and civil to any French or Americans who have been amongst them. They are strong and athletic, and the elderly men as fat as though they had lived upon English beef and porter.

It is said the man who kills a buffaloe, catches the blood and drinks it while warm; they likewise eat the liver raw, before it is cold, and use the gaul by way of sauce. They are, for savages, uncommonly cleanly in their persons: the dress of the women is a long, loose robe, that reaches from their chin to the ground, tied round with a fancy sash, or girdle, all made of neatly dressed leather, on which they paint figures of different colours and significations: the dress of the men is, close leather pantaloons, and a hunting shirt or frock of the same. They never remain long enough in the same place to plant any thing: the small Cayenne pepper grows spontaneously in the country, with which, and some wild herbs and fruits, particularly a bean that grows in great plenty on a small tree resembling a willow, called masketo, the women cook their buffaloe beef in a manner that would be grateful to an English squire. They alternately occupy the immense space of country from the Trinity and Braces, crossing the Red river, to the heads of Arkansa and Missouri, to river Grand, and beyond it, about St. a Fé, and over the dividing ridge on the waters of the Western ocean, where they say they have seen large peroques, with masts to them; in describing which, they make a drawing of a ship, with all its sails and rigging; and they describe a place where they have seen vessels ascending a river, over which was a draw bridge that opened to give them a passage. Their native language of sounds differs from the language of any other nation, and none can either speak or understand it; but they have a language by signs that all Indians understand, and by which they converse much among themselves. They have a number of Spanish men and women among them, who are slaves, and who they made prisoners when young.

An elderly gentleman now living at Natchitoches, who, some years ago, carried on a trade with the Hietans, a few days ago related to me the following story:

About 20 years ago a party of these Indians passed over the river Grand to Chewawa, the residence of the governor-general of what is called the five internal provinces; lay in ambush for an opportunity, and made prisoner the governor's daughter, a young lady, going in her coach to mass, and brought her off. The governor sent a message to him (my informant) with a thousand dollars, for the purpose of recovering his daughter: he immediately dispatched a confidential trader, then in his employ, with the amount of the 1000 dollars in merchandise, who repaired to the nation, found her, and purchased her ransom; but to his great surprise, she refused to return with him to her father, and sent by him the following message: that the Indians had disfigured her face by tattooing it according to their fancy and ideas of beauty, and a young man of them had taken her for his wife, by whom she believed herself pregnant: that she had become reconciled to their mode of life, and was well treated by her husband; and that she should be more unhappy by returning to her father, under these circumstances, than by remaining where she was. Which message was conveyed to her father, who rewarded the trader by a present of 300 dollars more for his trouble and fidelity; and his daughter is now living with her Indian husband in the nation, by whom she has three children.

NATCHITOCHES, formerly lived where the town of Natchitoches is now situated, took its name from them. An elderly French gentleman, lately informed me, he remembered when they were 600 men strong. I believe it is now 98 years since the French first established themselves at Natchitoch; ever since, these Indians have been their steady and faithful friends. After the massacre of the French inhabitants of Natchez, by the Natchez Indians, in 1728, those Indians fled from the French, after being reinforced, and came up Red River, and camped about six miles below the town of Natchitoches, near the river, by the side of a small lake of clear water, and erected a mound of considerable size, where it now remains. Monsieur St. Dennie, a French Canadian, was then commandant at Natchitoches; the Indians called him the Big Foot, were fond of him, for he was a brave man. St. Dennie, with a few French soldiers, and what militia he could muster, joined by the Natchitoches Indians, attacked the Natchez in their camp, early in the morning; they defended themselves desperately for six hours, but were at length totally defeated by St. Dennie, and what of them that were not killed in battle, were drove into the lake, where the last of them perished, and the Natchez, as a nation became extinct. The lake is now called by no other name than the Natchez lake. There are now remaining of the Natchitoches, but 12 men and 19 women, who live in a village about 25 miles by land above the town which bears their name, near a lake, called by the French *Lac de Muire*. Their original language is the same as the Yattassee, but speak Caddo, and most of them French. The French inhabitants have great respect for this nation, and a number of very decent families have a mixture of their blood in them. They claim but a small tract of land, on which they live, and I am informed, have the same rights to it from government, that other inhabitants in their neighborhood have. They are gradually wasting away; the small pox has been their great destroyer. They still preserve their Indian dress and habits; raise corn and those vegetables common in their neighborhood.

BOLUXAS, are emigrants from near Pensacola. They came to Red River about 40 years ago, with some French families, who left that country about the time Pensacola was taken possession of by the English. They were then a considerable numerous tribe, and have generally embraced the Roman Catholic religion, and were ever highly esteemed by the French. They settled first at Avoyall, then moved higher up to Rapide Bayau, and from thence to the mouth of Rigula de Bondieu, a division of Red River, about 40 miles below Natchitoch, where they now live, and are reduced to about 30 in number. Their native language is peculiar to themselves, but speak Mobilian, which is spoken by all the Indians from the east side of the Mississippi. They are honest, harmless and friendly people.

APPALACHES, are likewise emigrants from West-Florida, from off the river whose name they bear; came over to Red river about the same time the Boluxas did, and have, ever since, lived on the river, above Bayau Rapide. No nation have been more highly esteemed by the French inhabitants; no complaints against them are ever heard; there are only 14 men remaining; have their own language, but speak French and Mobilian.

ALLIBAMIS, are likewise from West-Florida, off the Allibami river, and came to Red river about the same time of the Boluxas and Appalaches. Part of them have lived on Red river, about 16 miles above the Bayau Rapide, till last year, when most of this party, of about 30 men, went up Red river, and have settled themselves near the Caddoques, where, I am informed, they last year made a good crop of corn. The Caddos are friendly to them, and have no objection to their settling there. They speak the Creek and Chactaw languages, and Mobilian; most of them French, and some of them English.

There is another party of them, whose village is on a small creek, in Appelousa district, about 30 miles north west from the church of Appelousa. They consist of about 40 men. They have lived at the same place ever since they came from Florida; are said to be increasing a little in numbers, for a few years past. They raise corn, have horses, hogs and cattle, and are harmless, quiet people.

CONCHATTAS, are almost the same people as the Allibamis, but came over only ten years ago; first lived on Bayau Chico, in Appelousa district, but, four years ago, moved to the river Sabine, settled themselves on the east bank, where they now live, in nearly a south direction from Natchitoch, and distant about 80 miles. They call their number of men 160, but say, if they were all together, they would amount to 200. Several families of them live in detached settlements. They are good hunters, and game is plenty about where they are. A few days ago, a small party of them were here, consisting of 15 persons, men, women and children, who were on their return from a bear hunt up the Sabine. They told me they had killed 118; but this year an uncommon number of bears have come down. One man alone, on Sabine, during the summer and fall, hunting, killed 400 deer, sold his skins at 40 dollars a hundred. The bears this year are not so fat as common; they usually yield from eight to twelve gallons of oil, each of which never sells for less than a dollar a gallon, and the skin a dollar more; no great quantity of the meat is saved; what the hunters don't use when out, they generally give to their dogs. The Conchettas are friendly with all other Indians, and speak well of their neighbours the Carankouas, who, they say, live about 80 miles south of them, on the bay, which, I believe, is the nearest point to the sea from Natchitoches. A few families of Chactaws have lately settled near them from Bayau Beuf. The Conchattas speak Creek, which is their native language, and Chactaw, and some of them English, and one or two of them can read it a little.

PACANAS, are a small tribe of about 30 men, who live on the Quelqueshoe river, which falls into the bay between Attakapa and Sabine, which heads in a prairie called Cooko prairie, about 40 miles south west of Natchitoches. These people are likewise emigrants from West-Florida, about 40 years ago. Their village is about 50 miles south east of the Conchattas; are said to be increasing a little in number; quiet, peaceable and friendly people. Their own language differs from any other, but speak Mobilian.

ATTAKAPAS. This word, I am informed, when translated into English, means man-eater, but is no more applicable to them than any other Indians. The district they live in is called after them. Their village is about 20 miles to the westward of the Attakapa church, towards Quelqueshoe. Their number of men is about 50, but some Tunicas and Humas, who have married in their nation and live with them, makes them altogether about 80. They are peaceable and friendly to every body; labour, occasionally, for the white inhabitants; raise their own corn; have cattle and hogs. Their language and the Carankouas is the same. They were, or near, where they now live, when that part of the country was first discovered by the French.

APPALOUSAS. It is said the word Appalousa, in the Indian language, means black head, or black skull. They are aborigines of the district called by their name. Their village is about 15 miles west from the Appelousa church; have about 40 men. Their native language differs from all other; understand Attakapa, and speak French; plant corn; have cattle and hogs.

TUNICAS. These people lived formerly on the Bayau Tunica, above Point Coupee, on the Mississippi, east side; live now at Avoyall; do not at present exceed 25 men. Their native language is peculiar to themselves, but speak Mobilian; are employed, occasionally, by the inhabitants as boatmen, &c. in amity with all other people, and gradually diminishing in numbers.

PASCAGOLAS, live in a small village on Red river, about 60 miles below Natchitoches; are emigrants from Pascagola river, in West-Florida; 25 men only of them remaining; speak Mobilian, but have a language peculiar to themselves; most of them speak and understand French. They raise good crops of corn, and garden vegetables; have cattle, horses, and poultry plenty. Their horses are much like the poorer kind of French inhabitants on the river, and appear to live about as well.

TENISAWS, are likewise emigrants from the Tenesau river, that falls into the bay of Mobile; have been on Red river about 40 years; are reduced to about 25 men. Their village is within one mile of the Pascagolas, on the opposite side, but have lately sold their land, and have, or are about moving, to Bayau Beauf, about 25 miles south from where they lately lived: all speak French and Mobilian, and live much like their neighbours the Pascagolas.

CHACTOOS, live on Bayau Beauf, about 10 miles to the southward of Bayau Rapide, on Red river, towards Appalousa; a small, honest people; are aborigines of the country where they live; of men about 30; diminishing: have their own peculiar tongue; speak Mobilian. The lands they claim on Bayau Beauf are inferiour to no part of Louisiana in depth and richness of soil, growth of timber, pleasantness of surface and goodness of water. The Bayau Beauf falls into the Chaffeli, and discharges, through Appelousa and Attakapa, into Vermilion Bay.

WASHAS. When the French first came into the Mississippi, this nation lived on an island to the south west of New-Orleans, called Barritaria, and were the first tribe of Indians they became acquainted with, and were always friends. They afterwards lived on Bayau La Fosh; and, from being a considerable nation, are now reduced to five persons only, two men and three women, who are scattered in French families; have been many years extinct, as a nation, and their native language is lost.

CHACTAWS. There are a considerable number of this nation on the west side of the Mississippi, who have not been home for several years. About 12 miles above the post on Oacheta, on that river, there is a small village of them of about 30 men, who have lived there for several years, and made corn; and likewise on Bayau Chico, in the northern part of the district of Appalousa, there is another village of them of about 50 men, who have been there for about 9 years, and say they have the governour of Louisiana's permission to settle there. Besides these, there are rambling hunting parties of them to be met with all over Lower Louisiana. They are at war with the Caddoques, and liked by neither red nor white people.

ARKENSAS, live on the Arkansa river, south side, in three villages, about 12 miles above the post, or station. The name of the first village is *Tawanima*, second *Oufotu*, and the third *Ocapa*; in all, it is believed, they do not at present exceed 100 men, and diminishing. They are at war with the Osages, but friendly with all other people, white and red; are the original proprietors of the country on the rives, to all which they lay claim, for about 300 miles above them, to the junction of the river Cadwa with Arkensa; above this fork the Osages claim. Their language is Osage. They generally raise corn to sell; are called honest and friendly people.

The forementioned are all the Indian tribes that I have any knowledge of, or can obtain an account of, in Louisiana, south of the river Arkensa, between the Mississippi and the river Grand. At Avoyall there did live a considerable tribe of that name, but, as far as I can learn, have been extinct for many years, two or three women excepted, who did lately live among the French inhabitants on Washita.

There are a few of the Humas still living on the east side of the Mississippi, in Ixsusees parish, below Manchack, but scarcely exist, as a nation.

That there are errours in these sketches is not to be doubted, but in all cases out of my own personal knowledge I have endeavoured to procure the best information, which I have faithfully related; and I am confident any errours that do exist are too unimportant to affect the object for which they are intended. I am, sir, &c.

(Signed) JOHN SIBLEY.

General H. Dearborn.

Natchitoches, April 5, 1805.

TO GENERAL HENRY DEARBORN,

SECRETARY OF WAR.

SIR,

YOU request me to give you some account of Red river, and the country adjacent: I will endeavour to comply with your request, to the best of my knowledge and capacity. My personal knowledge of it is only from its mouth, to about 70 or 80 miles above Natchitoches, being, by the course of the river, near 400 miles. After that, what I can say of it is derived from information from others, on whose veracity I have great reliance; principally from Mr. Francis Grappe, who is my assistant and interpreter of Indian languages; whose father was a French officer, and superintendant of Indian affairs, at a post, or station, occupied by France, where they kept some soldiers, and had a factory, previous to the cession of Louisiana to Spain, situate nearly 500 miles, by the course of the river, above Natchitoches, where he, my informant, was born, and lived upwards of 30 years; his time, during which, being occupied alternately as an assistant to his father, an Indian trader and hunter, with the advantage of some learning, and a very retentive memory, acquired an accurate knowledge of the river, as well as the languages of all the different Indian tribes of Louisiana, which, with his having been Indian interpreter for the Spanish government for many years past, and (I believe) deservedly esteemed by the Indians, and all others, a man of strict integrity, has, for many years, and does now possess their entire confidence, and a very extensive influence over them; and I have invariably found, that whatever information I have received from him, has been confirmed by every other intelligent person, having a knowledge of the same, with whom I have conversed.

NOTE. Contrary to geographical rules, as I ascended the river, I called the right bank the northern one, and the left the southern.

THE confluence of Red river with the Mississippi is, by the course of the latter, estimated about 220 miles from New-Orleans. Descending the Mississippi, after passing the Spanish line at the 31st degree of north latitude, it makes a remarkable turn to the westward, or nearly north west, for some distance before you arrive at the mouth of Red river, as though, notwithstanding the immense quantity of its waters already, from its almost numberless tributary streams, it was still desirous of a farther augmentation, by hastening its union with Red river (which, perhaps, is second only in dignity to it) that they might, from thence, flow on and join the ocean together, which, for many leagues, is forced to give place to its mighty current. But there are reasons for believing the Red river did not always unite with the Mississippi, as it does at present; and that no very great length of time has elapsed since the Mississippi left its ancient bed, some miles to the eastward, and took its course westwardly for the purpose of intermarrying with Red river. The mouth of the Chaffeli, which is now, properly speaking, one of the outlets of the river Mississippi to the ocean, is just below, in sight of the junction of Red river with the Mississippi; and from its resemblance to Red river in size, growth on its banks, appearance and texture of soil, and differing from that of the Mississippi, induces strongly the belief that the Chaffeli was once but the continuation of Red river to the ocean, and that it had, in its bed, no connection with the Mississippi. There is no doubt but the Mississippi has alternately occupied different places in the low grounds through which it meanders, almost from the high lands of one side to those of the other, for the average space of near 30 miles. These two great rivers happening to flow, for a distance, through the same mass of swamp, that annually is almost all inundated, it is not extraordinary that their channels should find their way together; the remarkable bend of the Mississippi, at this place, to the westward, seems to have been for the express purpose of forming this union; after which it returns to its former course.

In the month of March, 1803, I ascended Red river, from its mouth to Natchitoches, in an open boat, unless when I chose to land and walk across a point, or by the beauty of the river bank, the pleasantness of its groves, or the variety of its shrubs and flowers, I was invited ashore to gratify or please my curiosity. On entering the mouth of the river I found its waters turgid, of a red colour, and of a brackish taste; and as the Mississippi was then falling, and Red river rising, found a current, from its mouth upwards, varying considerably in places, but averaging about two miles an hour, for the first hundred miles, which, at that time, I found to be about the same in the Mississippi; but, when that river is high, and Red river low, there is very little current in the latter, for sixty or seventy miles: the river, for that distance, is very crooked, increasing the distance, by it, from a straight line, more than two thirds; the general course of it nearly west: that I was able to ascertain, from hearing the morning gun at Fort Adams, for three or four mornings after entering the river, which was not at the greatest height by about fourteen feet; and all the low grounds, for near seventy miles, entirely overflowed like those of the Mississippi, which, in fact, is but a continuation of the same. Some places appeared, by the high water mark on the trees, to overflow not more than two or three feet, particularly the right bank, below the mouth of Black river, and the left bank above it; the growth, on the lowest places, willow and cotton wood, but on the highest, handsome oaks, swamp hickory, ash, grape vines, &c.

I made my calculation of our rate of ascent and distances up the river, by my watch, noting carefully with my pencil the minute of our stops and settings off; the inlets and outlets, remarkable bends in the river, and whatever I observed any way remarkable. About six miles from the mouth of the river, left side, there is a bayau, as it is called, comes in, that communicates with a lake called lake Long, which, by another bayau, communicates again with the river, through which, when there is a swell in the river, boats can pass, and cut off about 30 miles, being only 14 or 15 through it, and about 45 by the course of the river; and through the lake there is very little or no current; but the passage is intricate and difficult to find; a stranger should not attempt it without a pilot; people have been lost in it for several days; but not difficult for one acquainted; we, having no pilot on board to be depended on, kept the river.

From the mouth of Red river to the mouth of Black river, I made it 31 miles: the water of Black river is clear, and when contrasted with the water of Red river, has a black appearance. From the mouth of Black river, Red river makes a regular twining to the left, for about 18 miles, called the Grand Bend, forming a segment of nearly three fourths of a circle; when you arrive at the bayau that leads into lake Long, which, perhaps, is in a right line, not exceeding 15 miles from the mouth of the river. From Bayau Lake Long, to Avoyall landing, called Baker's landing, I made 33 miles, and the river is remarkably crooked. At this place the guns at Fort Adams are distinctly heard, and the sound appears to be but little south of east. We came through a bayau called Silver Bayau, that cut off, we understand, six miles; it was through the bayau about four miles. Until we arrived at Baker's landing, saw no spot of ground that did not overflow; the high water mark generally from 3 to 15 feet above its banks. After passing Black river, the edge of the banks near the river are highest; the land falls, from the river back. At Baker's landing I went ashore; I understood, from Baker's landing, cross the point, to Le Glass' landing, was only 3 or 4 miles, and by water 15; but I found it 6 at least, and met with some difficulty in getting from where I landed to the high land at Baker's house, for water, though at low water it is a dry cart road, and less than a mile. I found Baker and his family very hospitable and kind; Mr. Baker told me he was a native of Virginia, and had lived there upwards of 30 years. He was living on a tolerable good high piece of land, not prairie, but joining it. After leaving Baker's house, was soon in sight of the prairie, which, I understand, is about 40 miles in circumference, longer than it is wide, very level, only a few clumps of trees to be seen, all covered with good grass. The inhabitants are settled all around the out edge of it, by the woods, their houses facing inwards, and cultivate the prairie land. Though the soil, when turned up by the plough, has a good appearance, what I could discover by the old corn and cotton stalks, they made but indifferent crops; the timber land that I saw cleared and planted, produced the best; the prairie is better for grass than for planting. The inhabitants have considerable stocks of cattle, which appears to be their principal dependence, and I was informed their beef is of a superiour quality: they have likewise good pork; hogs live very well; the timbered country all round the prairie is principally oak, that produces good mast for hogs. Corn is generally scarce; they raise no wheat, for they have no mills. I was informed that the lower end of the prairie, that I did not see, was much the richest land, and the inhabitants lived better, and were more wealthy; they are a mixture of French, Irish and Americans, generally poor and ignorant. Avoyall, at high water, is an island, elevated 30 or 40 feet above high water mark; the quantity of timbered land exceeds that of the prairie, which is likewise pretty level, but scarcely a second quality of soil. La Glass' landing, as it is called, I found about a mile and a half from the upper end of the prairie; the high lands bluff to the river. After leaving this place found the banks rise higher and higher on each side, and fit for settlements; on the right side pine woods sometimes in sight. I left the boat again about eight miles from Le Glass' landing, right side; walked two and a half miles across a point, to a Mr. Hoomes'; round the point is called 16 miles. I found the lands, through which I passed, high, moderately hilly; the soil a good second quality, clay; timber, large oak, hickory, some short leaved pine; and several small streams of clear running water. This description of lands extended back 5 or 6 miles, and bounded by open pine woods, which continue, for 30 miles, to Ocatahola. I found Mr. Hoomes' house on a high bluff very near the river; his plantation the same description of land through which I had passed, producing good corn, cotton and tobacco, and he told me he had tried it in wheat, which succeeded well, but having no mills to manufacture it, had only made the experiment. Mr. Hoomes told me all the lands round his, for many miles, were vacant. On the south side there is a large body of rich, low grounds, extending to the borders of Appalousa, watered and drained by Bayau Robert and Bayau Beauf, two handsome streams of clear water that rise in the high lands between Red river and Sabine, and after meandering through this immense mass of low grounds of 30 or 40 miles square, fall into the Chaffeli, to the southward of Avoyall. I believe, in point of soil, growth of timber, goodness of water, and conveniency to navigation, there is not a more valuable body of land in this part of Louisiana. From Mr. Hoomes' to the mouth of Rapide Bayau is, by the river, 35 miles. A few scattering settlements on the right side, but none on the left; the right is preferred to settle on, on account of their stocks being convenient to the high lands; but the settlers on the right side own the lands on the left side too; the lands on the Bayau Rapide are the same quality as those on Bayaus Robert and Beauf, and, in fact, are a continuation of the same body of lands. Bayau Rapide is somewhat in the form of a half moon; the two points, or horns, meeting the river about 20 miles from each other: the length of the bayau is about 30 miles; on the back of it there is a large bayau falls in, on which there is a saw mill, very advantageously situated, in respect to a never failing supply of water, plenty of timber; and the plank can be taken from the mill tail by water. This bayau is excellent water; rises in the pine woods, and discharges itself each way into the river, by both ends of Bayau Rapide. Boats cannot pass through the bayau, from the river to the river again, on account of rafts of timber choaking the upper end of it, but can enter the lower end and ascend it more than half through it. On the lower end of the bayau, on each side, is the principal Rapide settlement, as it is called; no country whatever can exhibit handsomer plantations, or better lands. The Rapide is a fall, or shoal, occasioned by a soft rock in the bed of the river, that extends from side to side, over which, for about five months in the year, (viz.) from July to December, there is not sufficient water for boats to pass without lightening, but at all other seasons it is the same as any other part of the river. This rock, or hard clay, for it resembles the latter almost as much as the former, is so soft it may be cut away with a pen knife, or any sharp instrument, and scarcely turn the edge, and extends up and down the river but a few yards; and I have heard several intelligent persons give it as their opinion, that the extraordinary expense and trouble the inhabitants were at, in one year, in getting loaded boats over this shoal, would be more than sufficient to cut a passage through it; but it happens at a season of the year when the able planters are occupied at home, and would make no use of the river were there no obstructions in it; but at any rate, the navigation of the river is clear a longer proportion of the year than the rivers in the northern countries are clear of ice. But this obstruction is certainly removable, at a very trifling expense, in comparison to the importance of having it done; and nothing but the nature of the government we have lately emerged from, can be assigned as a reason for its not having been effected long ago.

After passing the Rapides there are very few settlements to be seen, on the main river, for about 20 miles, though both sides appeared to me to be capable of making as valuable settlements as any on the river; we arrive then at the Indian villages, on both sides, situated exceedingly pleasant, and on the best lands; after passing which you arrive at a large, beautiful plantation of Mr. Gillard; the house is on a point of a high pine woods bluff, close to the river, 60 or 70 feet above the common surface of the country, overlooking, on the east, or opposite side, very extensive fields of low grounds, in high cultivation, and a long reach of the river, up and down; and there is an excellent spring of water issues from the bluff, on which the house is situated, from an aperture in the rock that seems to have been cloven on purpose for it to flow, and a small distance, back of the house, there is a lake of clear water, abounding with fish in summer and fowl in winter. I have seen in all my life, very few more beautiful or advantageously situated places.

Six miles above Gillard's, you arrive at the small village of Boluxa Indians, where the river is divided into two channels, forming an island of about 50 miles in length, and 3 or 4 in breadth. The right hand division is called the Rigula de Bondieu, on which are no settlements; but, I am informed, will admit of being well settled; the left hand division is the boat channel, at present, to Natchitoches: the other is likewise boatable. Ascending the left hand branch for about 24 miles, we pass a thick settlement and a number of wealthy inhabitants. This is called the *River Cane* settlement; called so, I believe, from the banks some years ago, being a remarkable thick cane-brake.

After passing this settlement of about forty families, the river divides again, forming another island of about thirty miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, called the *Isle Brevel*, after a reputable old man now living in it, who first settled it. This island is sub-divided by a bayau that communicates from one river to the other, called also Bayau Brevel. The middle division of the river, is called *Little* river, and it is thickly settled, and is the boat channel: the westward division of the river is called False river; is navigable, but not settled; the banks are too low; it passes through a lake called *Lac Occassa*. When you arrive at Natchitoches, you find it a small, irregular, and meanly built village, half a dozen houses excepted, on the west side of that division of the river it is on, the high pine and oak woods approach within two or three hundred yards of the river. In the village are about forty families, twelve or fifteen are merchants or traders, nearly all French. The fort built by our troops since their arrival, called Fort Claiborne, is situated on a small hill, one street from the river, and about thirty feet higher than the river banks. All the hill is occupied by the fort and barracks, and does not exceed two acres of ground. The southern and eastern prospects from it are very beautiful. One has an extensive view of the fields and habitations down the river, and the other a similar view over the river, and of the whole village. This town, thirty or forty years ago, was much larger than at present, and situated on a hill about half a mile from its present site. Then most of the families of the district lived in the town, but finding it inconvenient on account of the stocks and farms, they filed off, one after another, and settled up and down the river. The merchants and trading people found being on the bank of the river more convenient for loading and unloading their boats, left the hill on that account; and others, finding the river ground much superiour for gardens, to which they are in the habit of paying great attention, followed the merchants; after them the priests and commandant; then the church and jail (or calleboose), and now nothing of the old town is left, but the form of their gardens and some ornamental trees. It is now a very extensive common of several hundred acres, entirely tufted with clover, and covered with sheep and cattle. The hill is a stiff clay, and used to make miry streets; the river soil, though much richer, is of a loose, sandy, texture; the streets are neither miry nor very dusty. Our wells do not afford us good water, and the river water, in summer, is too brackish to drink, and never clear.

Our springs are about half a mile back from the river, but the inhabitants, many of them, have large cisterns, and use, principally, rain water, which is preferred to the spring water. The planters along on the river generally use rain water; though when the river is high, and the water taken up and settled in large earthen jars, (which the Indian women make of good quality and at a moderate price) it can be drank tolerably well, but it makes bad tea. Near Natchitoches there are two large lakes, one within a mile, the other six miles to the nearest parts. One of them is fifty or sixty miles in circumference, the other upwards of thirty: these lakes rise and fall with the river. When the river is rising the bayaus that connect with the lakes, run into the lakes like a mill-tail, till the lakes are filled; and when the river is falling, it is the same the contrary way, just like the tide, but only annual. On these creeks good mills might be erected, but the present inhabitants know nothing of mills by water, yet have excellent cotton gins worked by horses. I do not know a single mechanick in the district, who is a native of it, one tailor excepted. Every thing of the kind is done by strangers, mostly Americans. Though Natchitoches has been settled almost one hundred years, it is not more than twelve or fifteen years since they ever had a plough, or a flat to cross the river with; both which were introduced by an Irish Pennsylvanian, under a similar opposition to the Copernican system. 'Tis almost incredible the quantity of fish and fowl these lakes supply. It is not uncommon in winter for a single man to kill from two to four hundred fowl in one evening; they fly between sundown and dark; the air is filled with them; they load and fire as fast as they can, without taking any particular aim, continuing at the same stand till they think they have killed enough, and then pick up what they have killed; they consist of several kinds of duck, geese, brant, and swan. In summer the quantities of fish are nearly in proportion. One Indian, with a bow and arrow, sometimes will kill them faster than another, with two horses, can bring them in; they weigh, some of them, thirty or forty pounds. The lakes likewise afford plenty of shells for lime; and at low water, the greater of them is a most luxuriant meadow, where the inhabitants fatten their horses. All round these lakes above high water mark, there is a border of rich land, generally wide enough for a field. On the bank of one of them, there is plenty of stone coal, and several quarries of tolerable good building stone; at high water boats can go out of the river into them. Similar lakes are found all along Red river, for five or six hundred miles, which, besides the uses already mentioned, nature seems to have provided as reservoirs for the immense quantity of water beyond what the banks of the river will contain; otherwise no part of them could be inhabited: the low grounds, from hill to hill, would be inundated. About twelve miles north of Natchitoches, on the north east side of the river, there is a large lake called *Lac Noiz*; the bayau of it communicates to the Rigula de Bondieu, opposite Natchitoch, which is boatable the greater part of the year. Near this lake are the salt works, from which all the salt that is used in the district, is made; and which is made with so much ease, that two old men, both of them cripples, with ten or twelve old pots and kettles, have, for several years past, made an abundant supply of salt for the whole district; they inform me they make six bushels per day. I have not been at the place, but have a bottle of the water brought to me, which I found nearly saturated. The salt is good. I never had better bacon than I make with it. I am informed, there are twelve saline springs now open; and by digging for them, for ought any one knows, twelve hundred might be opened. A few months ago, captain Burnet, of the Mississippi territory, coming to this place by Washita, came by the salt works, and purchased the right of one of the old men he found there, and has lately sent up a boat, with some large kettles and some negroes, under the direction of his son; and expects, when they get all in order, to be able to make thirty or forty bushels a day. Captain Burnet is of opinion, that he shall be able to supply the Mississippi territory, and the settlements on Mississippi, from Point Coupee, upwards, lower than they can get it in New-Orleans and bring it up. Cathartic salts, and magnesia, might likewise be made in large quantities, if they understood it. The country all round the Sabine and Black lake is vacant; and from thence to Washita, a distance of about one hundred and twenty miles, which I am informed affords considerable quantities of well timbered good uplands, and well watered. There is a small stream we cross on the Washita road, the English call it *Little River*, the French *Dogdimona*, affording a wide rich bottom : this stream falls into the Acatahola lake ; from thence to Washita, it is called Acatahola river ; its course is eastwardly, and falls into Washita, near the mouth of Tensaw, where the road from Natchitoches to Natchez, crosses it ; from the confluence of these three rivers, downwards, it is called Black river, which falls into Red river, sixty miles below. There is a good salt spring near the Acatahola lake.

Ascending Red river, above Natchitoches, in about three miles arrive at the upper mouth of the Rigula de Bondieu : there are settlements all along ; plantations adjoining. From the upper mouth of the Rigula de Bondieu, the river is one channel through the settlement called Grand Ecore, of about six miles ; it is called Grand Ecore, (or in English the Great Bluff) being such a one on the left hand side, near one hundred feet high. The face next the river, almost perpendicular, of a soft, white rock ; the top, a gravel loam, of considerable extent, on which grow large oaks, hickory, black cherry, and grape vines. At the bottom of one of these bluffs, for there are two near each other, is a large quantity of stone-coal, and near them several springs of the best water in this part of the country ; and a lake of clear water within two hundred yards, bounded by a gravelly margin. I pretend to have no knowledge of military tacticks, but think, from the river in this place being all in one channel, the goodness of the water, a high, healthy country, and well timbered all round it, no height near it so high, its commanding the river, and a very publick ferry just under it, and at a small expense, would be capable of great defence with a small force. The road from it to the westward, better than from Nachitoch, and by land only about five miles above it, and near it plenty of good building stone. These advantages it possesses beyond any other place within my knowledge on the river, for a strong fort, and safe place of deposit. Just about this bluff, the river makes a large bend to the right, and a long reach nearly due east and west by it ; the bluff overlooks, on the opposite side, several handsome plantations. I have been induced, from the advantages this place appeared to me to possess, to purchase it, with four or five small settlements adjoining, including both bluffs, the ferry, springs and lake, the stone quarries, and coal ; and a field of about five hundred acres of the best low grounds, on the opposite side. After leaving Grand Ecore, about a mile, on the left side comes in a large bayau, from the Spanish lake, as it is called, boatable the greater part of the year. This lake is said to be about fifty miles in circumference, and rises and falls with the river, into which, from the river, the largest boats may ascend, and from it, up the mouths of several large bayaus that fall into it, for some distance, one in particular called bayau Dupong, up which boats may ascend within one and a half mile of old fort Adaize. Leaving this bayau about two miles, arrive at a fork or division of the river ; the left hand branch bears westwardly for sixty or eighty miles ; then eastwardly, meeting the branch it left, after forming an island of about one hundred miles long, and, in some places, nearly thirty miles wide. Six or seven years ago, boats used to pass this way into the main river again ; its communication with which being above the great raft or obstruction ; but it is now choaked, and requires a portage of three miles ; but at any season, boats can go from Natchitoches, about eighty miles, to the place called the point, where the French had a factory, and a small station of soldiers to guard the Indian trade, and is now undoubtedly a very eligible situation for a similar establishment. The country bounded to the east and north, by this branch or division of the river, is called the bayau Pierre settlement, which was begun, and some of the lands granted before Louisiana was ceded to Spain by France, and continued under the jurisdiction of the commandant of Natchitoches until about twenty years ago, when, by an agreement between a Mr. Vogone, then commandant of this place, and a Mr. Elibarbe, commandant at Natchitoches, the settlement called bayau Pierre, was placed under the jurisdiction of the latter, and has so continued ever since. The settlement, I believe, contains about forty families, and generally they have large stocks of cattle: they supply us with our cheese entirely, and of a tolerable quality, and we get from them some excellent bacon hams. The country is interspersed with prairies, resembling, as to richness, the river bottoms, and, in size, from five to five thousand acres. The hills are a good grey soil, and produce very well, and afford beautiful situations. The creek called Bayau Pierre, (stony creek) passes through the settlement, and affords a number of good mill seats, and its bed and banks lined with a good kind of building stone, but no mills are erected on it. Some of the inhabitants have tried the uplands in wheat, which succeeded well. They are high, gently rolling, and rich enough; produce good corn, cotton, and tobacco. I was through the settlement in July last, and found good water, either from a spring or well, at every house. The inhabitants are all French, one family excepted. A few miles to the westward, towards Sabine, there is a Saline, where the inhabitants go and make their salt. On the whole, for health, good water, good living, plenty of food for every kind of animal, general conveniency, and handsome surface, I have seen few parts of the world more inviting to settlers.

Returning back again to the fork of the main river we left, for the purpose of exploring the Bayau Pierre branch, we find irregular settlements, including Campti, where a few families are settled together on a hill near the river, northeast side. For about 20 miles, the river land is much the same every where, but the Campti settlement is more broken with bayaus and lagoons than any place I am acquainted with on the river, and for want of about a dozen bridges is inconvenient to get to, or travel through. The upper end of this settlement is the last on the main branch of Red river, which, straight by land, does not exceed 25 miles above Natchitoches. At the upper house the great raft or jam of timber begins; this raft choaks the main channel for upwards of 100 miles, by the course of the river; not one entire jam from the beginning to the end of it, but only at the points, with places of several leagues that are clear. The river is very crooked, and the low grounds are wide and rich, and I am informed, no part of Red river will afford better plantations than along its banks by this raft, which is represented as being so important as to render the country above it of little value for settlements; this opinion is founded entirely upon incorrect information. The first or lowest part of the raft is at a bend or point in the river, just below the upper plantation, at which, on the right side, a large bayau, or division of the river, called Bayau Channo, comes in, which is free of any obstructions, and the greater part of the year boats of any size may ascend it, into lake Bistino, through which, to its communication with the lake, is only about three miles; the lake is about 60 miles long, and lays nearly parallel with the river, from the upper end of which it communicates again with the river, by a bayau called *Daichet*, about 40 miles above the upper end of the raft; from the lake to the river, through Bayau Daichet, is called nine miles; there is always in this bayau sufficient water for any boat to pass; from thence upwards Red river is free of all obstructions to the mountains. By lake Bistino, and these two bayaus, an island is formed, about 70 miles long, and three or four wide, capable of affording settlements inferiour to none on the river. From the above account you will perceive, that the only difficulty in opening a boat passage by this raft, through the lake, which is much shorter than by the course of the river, and avoid the current, and indeed, was the river unobstructed, would always be preferred, is this small jam of timber at the point, just below the bayau Channo, as it is called.

After the receipt of your letter, I had an opportunity of seeing some of the inhabitants who live near this place, who informed me, that that small raft was easily broken, and that they had lately been talking of doing it. I persuaded them to make the attempt, and they accordingly appointed the Friday following, and all the neighbours were to be invited to attend and assist. They met accordingly, and effected a passage next to one bank of the river, so that boats could pass, but did not entirely break it; they intend to take another spell at it, when the water falls a little, and speak confidently of succeeding.

The country about the head of lake Bistino, is highly spoken of, as well the high lands, as the river bottom. There are falling into the river and lake in the vicinity, some handsome streams of clear wholesome water from towards Washita, one in particular called bayau Badkah by the Indians, which is boatable at some seasons; this bayau passes through a long, narrow and rich prairie, on which, my informant says, 500 families might be desirably settled; and from thence up to where the Caddos lately lived, the river banks are high, bottoms wide and rich as any other part of the river. From thence it is much the same to the mouth of the Little river of the left; this river is generally from 50 to an 100 yards wide; heads in the great prairies, south of Red river, and interlocks with the head branches of the Sabine and Trinity rivers; and in times of high water is boatable 40 or 50 leagues, affording a large body of excellent, well timbered and rich land, the low grounds from 3 to 6 miles wide: but the quality of the water, though clear, is very inferiour to that of the streams that fall into Red river on the north side. The general course of the Red river from this upwards is nearly from west to east, till we arrive at the Panis towns, when it turns northwestwardly. After leaving the mouth of the Little river of the left, both banks are covered with strong, thick cane for about 20 miles; the low grounds very wide, rich, and do not overflow; the river widening in proportion as the banks are less liable to overflow; you arrive at a handsome, rich prairie, 25 miles long on the right side, and 4 or 5 miles wide; bounded by handsome oak and hickory woods, mixed with some short-leaved pine, interspersed with pleasant streams and fountains of water. The opposite, or left side is a continuation of thick cane; the river or low lands 10 or 12 miles wide. After leaving the prairie, the cane continues for about 40 miles; you then arrive at another prairie, called Little prairie, left side, about 5 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth; opposite side continues cane as before; low lands wide, well timbered, very rich, and overflow but little; the river still widening. Back of the low grounds, is a well timbered, rich upland country; gently rolling and well watered; from the Little prairie, both banks cane for 10 or 12 miles, when the oak and pine woods come bluff to the river for about 5 miles; left hand side, cane as before; then the same on both sides, for from 10 to 30 miles wide, for about 15 miles, when the cedar begins on both sides, and is the principal growth on the wide, rich river bottom for 40 miles; in all the world there is scarcely to be found a more beautiful growth of cedar timber; they, like the cedars of Libanus, are large, lofty and straight.

You now arrive at the mouth of the Little river of the right; this river is about 150 yards wide: the water clear as chrystal; the bottom of the river stony, and is boatable, at high water, up to the great prairies near 200 miles by the course of the river; the low grounds generally from 10 to 15 miles wide, abounding with the most luxuriant growth of rich timber, but subject to partial inundation at particular rainy seasons. After leaving this river, both banks of Red river are cane as before, for about 20 miles, when you come to the round prairie, right side, about 5 miles in circumference. At this place Red river is fordable at low water; a hard stony bottom, and is the first place from its mouth where it can be forded. This round prairie is high and pleasant, surrounded by handsome oak and hickory uplands ; left side cane as before, and then the same both sides for 20 miles, to the long prairie, left side, 40 miles long ; opposite side cane as before ; near the middle of this prairie, there is a lake of about 5 miles in circumference, in an oval form, neither tree nor shrub near it, nor stream of water running either in or out of it ; it is very deep, and the water so limpid that a fish may be seen 15 feet from the surface. By the side of this lake the Caddoquies have lived from time immemorial. About one mile from the lake is the hill on which, they say, the great spirit placed one Caddo family, who were saved when, by a general deluge, all the world were drowned ; from which family all the Indians have originated. For this little natural eminence all the Indian tribes, as well as the Caddoquies, for a great distance, pay a devout and sacred homage. Here the French, for many years before Louisiana was ceded to Spain, had erected a small fort ; kept some soldiers to guard a factory they had here established for the Indian trade, and several French families were settled in the vicinity, built a flour mill, and cultivated wheat successfully for several years ; and it is only a few years ago that the mill irons and mill stones were brought down : it is about 25 years since those French families moved down, and 14 years since the Caddoquies left it. Here is another fording place when the river is low. On the opposite side a point of high oak, hickory, and pine land comes bluff to the river for about a mile ; after which, thick cane to the upper end of the prairie ; then the same on both sides for about 12 miles ; then prairie on the left side for 20 miles, opposite side cane ; then the same for 30 miles, then an oak high bluff 3 miles, cane again for about the same distance, on both sides ; then for about one league, left side, is a beautiful grove of pacans, intermixed with no other growth ; after which, cane both sides for 40 miles ; then prairie, left side, for 20 miles, and from one to two miles only in depth ; about the middle of which comes in a bayau of clear running water, about 50 feet wide ; then cane again both sides the river for about 40 miles ; then, on the right side, a point of high pine woods bluff to the river for about half a mile, cane again 15 or 16 miles ; then a bluff of large white rocks for about half a mile, near 100 feet high, cane again about 45 miles, to a prairie on the right side, of about 30 miles long, and 12 or 15 miles wide ; there is a thin skirt of wood along the bank of the river, that when the leaves are on the trees, the prairie is, from the river, scarcely to be seen. From the upper end of this prairie it is thick cane again for about six miles, when we arrive to the mouth of Bayau Galle, which is on the right side, about 30 yards wide, a beautiful, clear, running stream of wholesome well tasted water ; after passing which it is thick cane again for 25 miles, when we arrive at a river that falls in on the right side, which is called by the Indians *Kiomitchie*, and by the French *La Riviere la Mine*, or Mine river, which is about 150 yards wide, the water clear and good, and is boatable about 60 miles to the silver mine, which is on the bank of the river, and the ore appears in large quantities, but the richness of it is not known. The Indians inform of their discovering another, about a year ago, on a creek that empties into the Kiomitchie, about three miles from its month, the ore of which they say resembles the other. The bottom land of this river is not wide, but rich ; the adjoining high lands are rich, well timbered, well watered and situated. About the mine the current of the river is too strong for boats to ascend it, the country being hilly. After passing the Kiomitchie, both banks of the river are covered with thick cane for 25 miles, then, left side, a high pine bluff appears again to the river for about half a mile, after which nothing but cane again on each side for about 40 miles, which brings you to the mouth of a handsome bayau, left side, called by the Indians *Nahaucha*, which, in English, means the Kick ; the French call it *Bois d'Arc*, or Bow-wood creek, from the large quantity of that wood that grows upon it. On this bayau trappers have been more successful in catching beaver than on any other water of Red river ; it communicates with a lake, three or four miles from its mouth, called Swan lake.

from the great number of swan that frequent it; it is believed that this bayan is boatable at high water, for 20 or 30 leagues, from what I have been informed by some hunters with whom I have conversed, who have been upon it. The low grounds are from three to six miles wide, very rich, the principal growth on it is the Bois d'arc. The great prairies approach pretty near the low grounds on each side of this creek; leaving which it is cane both sides for about eight miles, when we arrive at the mouth of the Vazzures, or Boggy river, which is about 200 yards wide, soft miry bottom, the water whitish, but well tasted. Attempts have been made to ascend it in perogues, but it was found to be obstructed by a raft of logs, about 20 miles up. The current was found to be gentle, and depth of water sufficient; was the channel not obstructed might be ascended far up. The low grounds on this river are not as wide as on most of the rivers that fall into Red river, but very rich; the high lands are a strong clay soil; the principal growth oak. After leaving this river the banks of Red river are alternately cane and prairie; timber is very small and scattered along only in places; it is only now to be seen along the water courses. From the Boggy river to the Blue river is about 50 miles, which comes in on the right side. The water of this river is called *blue*, from its extreme transparency; it is said to be well tasted, and admired, for its quality, to drink. The bed of this river is lined generally with black and greyish flint stones; it is about 50 yards wide, and represented as a beautiful stream; perogues ascend it about 60 or 70 miles. The low grounds of Blue river are a good width for plantations, very rich; the growth pacan, and every species of the walnut. The whole country here, except on the margin of the water courses, is one immense prairie. After passing this river, copses of wood only are to be seen here and there along the river bank for about 25 miles, to a small turgid river, called by the Indians *Bahachaha*, and by the French *Fauxoacheta*; some call it the Missouri branch of Red river; it emits a considerable quantity of water; runs from north to south, and falls into Red river nearly at right angles, and heads near the head of the Arkensa, and is so brackish it cannot be drank. On this river, and on a branch of the Arkensa, not far from it, the Indians find the salt rock; pieces of it have often been brought to Natchitoches by hunters, who procured it from the Indians. From the mouth of this river, through the prairie, to the main branch of the Arkensa, is three days journey; perhaps 60 or 70 miles in a straight line. From this to the Panis, or Towrache towns, by land, is about 30 miles, and by water, double that distance; the river is nearly a mile wide. The country on each side, for many hundreds of miles, is all prairie, except a skirt of wood along the river bank, and on the smaller streams; what trees there are, are small; the grass is green summer and winter. In between 33 and 34 degrees of north latitude, the soil is very rich, producing, luxuriously, every thing that is planted in it: the river, from this upwards, for 150 miles, continues at least a mile wide, and may be ascended in perogues.

Mr. Grappe, to whom I am indebted for the foregoing accurate description of Red river, informed me, that his personal knowledge of it did not extend but little above the Panis towns; but Mr. Brevel, of the Isle Brevel, who was born at the Caddo old towns, where he was, had been farther up it, and that whatever account he gave me might be relied on.

I therefore sought an opportunity, a few days after, to obtain from Mr. Brevel the following narrative, which I wrote down from his own mouth, as he related it:

"About 40 years ago, I sat off, on foot, from the Panis nation (who then lived about 50 leagues above where they now live) in company with a party of young Indian men, with whom I had been partly raised, on a hunting voyage, and to procure horses. We kept up on the south side of Red river, as near it as we could conveniently cross the small streams that fall in, sometimes at some distance, and at others very near it, and in sight of it. We found the country all prairie, except small copses of wood, cedar, cotton wood, or musketo, amongst which a stick six inches in diameter could not be found; the surface becoming more and more light, sandy and hilly, with ledges of clifts of a greyish sandy rock, but every where covered with herbage. We found many small streams falling into the river, but none of any considerable size, or that discharged much water in dry seasons, but many deep gullies formed by the rain water. After travelling for several days over a country of this description, the country became more broken, the hills rising into mountains, amongst which we saw a great deal of rock salt, and an ore the Indians said was my (meaning the white people's) treasure, which I afterwards learned was silver. And that amongst these mountains of mines, we often heard a noise like the explosion of a cannon, or distant thunder, which the Indians said was the spirit of the white people working in their treasure, which, I afterwards was informed, was the blowing of the mines, as it is called, which is common in all parts of Spanish America where mines exist. The main branch of the river becoming smaller, till it divided into almost innumerable streams that issued out of the vallies amongst these mountains; the soil very light and sandy, of a reddish grey colour. We travelled on from the top of one mountain to the top of another, in hopes the one we were ascending was always the last, till the small streams we met with ran the contrary way, towards the setting sun, and the lands declining that way. We continued on till the streams enlarged into a river of considerable size, and the country became level, well timbered, the soil a rich black loam; the waters were all clear and well tasted. Here we found a great many different tribes of the Hietan, Appaches and Concee Indians; we likewise fell in with them frequently from the time we had been a few days out from the Panis towns, and were always treated kindly by them. I believe the distance from the Panis old towns to where we saw the last of Red river water, is at least one hundred leagues; and in crossing over the ridge, we saw no animals that were not common in all the country of Louisiana, except the spotted tyger, and a few white bears. After spending some days on the western waters, we sat off for the settlements of St. a Fé; steering nearly a south east course, and in a few days were out of the timbered country into prairie; the country became broken and hilly; the waters all running westwardly; the country cloathed with a luxuriant herbage, and frequently passing mines of silver ore. We arrived, at length, at a small, meanly built town in the St. a Fé settlement, containing about one hundred houses, round which were some small, cultivated fields, fenced round with small cedar and musketo brush, wattled in stakes. This little town was on a small stream of water that ran westwardly, and in a dry season scarcely run at all, and that the inhabitants were obliged to water their cattle from wells. And I understood that the bayau upon which this town is situated, was no part of Rio Grandi, but fell into the western ocean; but of that I might have been mistaken. I understood that similar small towns, or missions, were within certain distances of each other for a great extent southwardly, towards Mexico; and that the inhabitants were mostly christianised Indians and Matiffs. That the mines in that settlement afforded very rich ore, which was taken away in large quantities, packed on mules, and had the same appearance of what we met with about the head branches of Red river. After furnishing ourselves with horses at this place, we sat off again for the Panis towns, from whence we started, steering at first southwardly, in order to avoid a high, mountainous country that is difficult to cross, that lies between St. a Fe and Red river. After travelling some distance south, we turned our course northeastwardly, and arrived at the Panis towns in eighteen days from the day we left St. a Fe settlements; and three months and twenty days from the time we started."

He is of the opinion that from the Panis towns to St. a Fe, in a right line, is nearly three hundred miles, and all the country prairie, a few scattering cedar knobs excepted. After he had finished his narrative, I asked him how far Red river was boatable. He said, not much above the Panis old towns; not that he knew of any particular falls or obstructions, but that the head branches of the river came from steep mountains, on which the rain often poured down in torrents, and runs into the river with such velocity, sweeping along with it large quantities of loose earth, of which these hills and mountains are composed: that it rolls like a swell in the sea, and would either sink or carry along with it any boat that it might meet in the river. But, he observed at the same time, that his opinion was founded on no experiment that he had ever known made. I asked him if the Indians had no perogues high up in the river. He told me, that the Indians there knew nothing of the use of them, for instead of there being for hundreds of miles a tree large enough for a canoe, one could scarcely be found large enough to make a fowl trough. I asked him what animals were found in the Great prairies. He told me, from Blue river, upwards, on both sides of Red river, there were innumerable quantities of wild horses, buffaloe, bears, wolves, elk, deer, foxes, sangliers or wild hogs, antelope, white hares, rabbits, &c. and on the mountains the spotted tyger, panther, and wild cat. He farther told me, that about 23 years ago, he was employed by the governour of St. Antoine, to go from that place into some of the Indian nations that lived towards St. a Fe, who were at war with the Spaniards, to try to make a peace with them, and bring in some of the chiefs to St. Antoine. He set off from that place with a party of soldiers, and was to have gone to St. a Fe; they passed on a northwestwardly course for about 200 miles, but after getting into the Great Prairie, being a dry season, they were forced to turn back for want of water for themselves and horses, and that he does not know how near he went to St. a Fe, but believes he might have been half way.

The accounts given by Mr. Brevel, Mr. Grappe, and all other hunters with whom I have conversed, of the immense droves of animals that, at the beginning of winter, descend from the mountains down southwardly, into the timbered country, is almost incredible. They say the buffaloe and bear particularly, are in droves of many thousands together, that blacken the whole surface of the earth, and continue passing, without intermission, for weeks together, so that the whole surface of the country is, for many miles in breadth, trodden like a large road. I am, sir, &c. &c.

(Signed) JOHN SIBLEY.

Natchitoches, 10th April, 1805.

Distances up Red river, by the course of the river.

	MILES.	
From the mouth of Red river to Black river,	31	
to Baker's landing, lower end Avoyal	31	
La Glee's ditto, upper end Avoyal,	15	
Rice's,	6	
Hoomes's,	18	
Nicholas Grubb's,	24	
mouth of bayau Rapide,	15	
	—	157
Indian villages,	22	
Mount Pleasant, Gillard's place,	7	
mouth of Rigula de Bondieu,	6	
Mounete's plantation,	10	
mouth of Little river,	24	
bayau Brevel,	20	
Natchitoches,	20	
	—	109
		266

Brought over		266
Grand Ecore,	10	
Compti,	20	
bayau Channo,	15	
lake Bistino, through bayau Channo,	3	
through lake Bistino to the upper end of Channo,	60	
through bayau Daichet to the river again,	9	
late Caddo villages, where they lived 5 years ago,	80	
	—	197
Little river of the left,	80	
long prairie, right side,	25	
upper end of ditto,	25	
little prairie, left side,	40	
upper end ditto,	5	
	—	175
pine bluff, right side,	12	
upper end, ditto,	5	
cedars,	15	
upper end ditto, and mouth of Little river of the right,	40	
	—	72
round prairie, right side, (first fording place)	20	
lower end of long prairie, left side,	25	
upper end ditto,	40	
next prairie same side,	12	
upper end of the same,	20	
3 mile oak and pine bluff,	30	
Pacan grove,	9	
upper end of the same,	6	
	—	162
prairie next above the pacans,	40	
upper end of the same,	25	
pine bluff right side,	45	
white oak bluff,	15	
next prairie right side,	45	
upper end ditto,	30	
bayau Galle, right side,	6	
mouth of Kiomitchie, or mine river,	25	
	—	231
pine bluff left side,	25	
bayau Kick, or Bois d'arc creek,	40	
the Vazzures, or Boggy river, right side,	8	
Blue river, right side,	50	
Faux Oacheto or Missouri branch,	25	
Panis or Towiache towns,	70	
Panis or ditto old towns,	150	
head branch of Red river, or dividing ridge,	300	
	—	668
To which may be added for so much the distance being shortened by going through lake Bistino, than the course of the river,		60
		1,831
Computed length of Red river from where it falls into the Mississippi, to which add the distance from the mouth of Red river to the ocean, by either the Mississippi, or the Cheffeli, which was once probably the mouth of Red river,		320
Total length of Red river,	*miles*	2,151

OBSERVATIONS

Made in a voyage commencing at St. Catharine's landing, on the east bank of the Mississippi, proceeding downwards to the mouth of Red river, and from thence ascending that river, the Black river, and the Washita river, as high as the hot springs in the proximity of the last mentioned river; extracted from the Journals of William Dunbar, Esq. and Doctor Hunter.

MR. DUNBAR, Doctor Hunter, and the party employed by the United States to make a survey of, and explore the country traversed by the Washita river, left St. Catharine's landing, on the Mississippi, in latitude 31°. 26'. 30". N. and longitude 6h. 5'. 56". W. from the meridian of Greenwich, on Tuesday the 16th of October, 1804. A little distance below St. Catharine's creek, and 5 leagues from Natches, they passed the White Cliffs, composed chiefly of sand, surmounted by pine, and from 100 to 200 feet high. When the waters of the Mississippi are low, the base of the cliff is uncovered, which consists of different coloured clays, and some beds of ochre, over which there lies, in some places, a thin lamina of iron ore. Small springs possessing a petrifying quality flow over the clay and ochre, and numerous logs and pieces of timber, converted into stone, are strewed about the beach. Fine pure argil of various colours, chiefly white and red, is found here.

On the 17th they arrived at the mouth of Red river, the confluence of which with the Mississippi, agreeably to the observations of Mr. de Ferrer, lies in latitude 31°. 1'. 15". N. and longitude 6h. 7'. 11". W. of Greenwich. Red river is here about 500 yards wide, and without any sensible current. The banks of the river are clothed with willow; the land low and subject to inundation, to the height of 30 feet or more above the level of the water at this time. The mouth of the Red river is accounted to be 75 leagues from New-Orleans, and 3 miles higher up than the Chafalaya, or Opelousa river, which was probably a continuation of the Red river when its waters did not unite with those of the Mississippi but during the inundation.

On the 18th the survey of the Red river was commenced, and on the evening of the 19th the party arrived at the mouth of the Black river, in latitude 31°. 15'. 48". N. and about 26 miles from the Mississippi. The Red river derives its name from the rich fat earth, or marle, of that colour, borne down by the floods; the last of which appeared to have deposited on the high bank a stratum of upwards of half an inch in thickness. The vegetation on its banks is surprisingly luxuriant; no doubt owing to the deposition of marle during its annual floods. The willows grow to a good size; but other forest trees are much smaller than those seen on the banks of the Mississippi. As you advance up the river, it gradually narrows; in latitude 31°. 08'. N. it is about 200 yards wide, which width is continued to the mouth of Black river, where each of them appears 150 yards across. The banks of the river are covered with pea vine and several sorts of grass, bearing seed, which geese and ducks eat very greedily; and there are generally seen willows growing on one side, and on the other a small growth of black oak, packawn, hickory, elm, &c. The current in the Red river is so moderate as scarcely to afford an impediment to its ascent.

On sounding the Black river a little above its mouth, there was found 20 feet of water, with a bottom of black sand. The water of Black river is rather clearer than that of the Ohio, and of a warm temperature, which it may receive from the water flowing into it from the valley of the Mississippi, particularly by the Catahoola. At noon on the 23d, by a good meridian observation, they ascertained their latitude to be 30°. 36′. 29″. N. and were then a little below the mouths of the Catahoola, Washita and Bayau Tenza, the united waters of which form the Black river. The current is very gentle the whole length of the Black river, which in many places does not exceed 80 yards in width. The banks on the lower part of the river present a great luxuriance of vegetation and rank grass, with red and black oak, ash, paccawn, hickory, and some elms.* The soil is black marle, mixed with a moderate proportion of sand, resembling much the soil on the Mississippi banks; yet the forest trees are not lofty, like those on the margin of the great river, but resembling the growth on the Red river. In latitude 31°. 22′. 40″. N. they observed that canes grew on several parts of the right bank, a proof that the land is not deeply overflowed; perhaps from one to three feet: the banks have the appearance of stability; very little willow, or other productions of a newly formed soil being seen on either side. On advancing up the river, the timber becomes larger, in some places rising to the height of 40 feet; yet the land is liable to be inundated, not from the waters of this small river, but from the intrusion of its more powerful neighbour the Mississippi. The lands decline rapidly, as in all alluvial countries, from the margin to the Cypress swamps, where more or less water stagnates all the year round. On the 21st they passed a small, but elevated island, said to be the only one in this river for more than 100 leagues ascending. On the left bank, near this island, a small settlement of a couple of acres has been begun by a man and his wife. The banks are not less than 40 feet above the present level of the water in the river, and are but rarely overflowed: on both sides they are clothed with rich cane brake, pierced by creeks fit to carry boats during the inundation.

They saw many cormorants, and the hooping crane; geese and ducks are not yet abundant, but are said to arrive in myriads with the rains and winter's cold. They shot a fowl of the duck kind, whose foot was partially divided, and the body covered with a bluish or lead coloured plumage. On the morning of the twenty-second, they observed green matter floating on the river, supposed to come from the Catahoola and other lakes and bayaus of stagnant water, which, when raised a little by rain, flow into the Black river; and also many patches of an aquatic plant, resembling small islands, some floating on the surface of the river, and others adhering to, or resting on the shore and logs. On examining this plant, it was found a hollow, jointed stem, with roots of the same form, extremely light, with very narrow willow shaped leaves projecting from the joint, embracing however, the whole of the tube, and extending to the next inferior joint or knot. The extremity of each branch is terminated by a spike of very slender, narrow seminal leaves from one to two inches in length, and one tenth, or less, in breadth, producing its seed on the underside of the leaf, in a double row almost in contact: the grains alternately placed in perfect regularity: not being able to find the flower, its class and order could not be determined, although it is not probably new. Towards the upper part of the Black river, the shore abounded with muscles and periwinkles. The muscles were of the kind called pearl muscles. The men dressed a quantity of them, considering them as an agreeable food; but Mr. D. found them tough and unpalatable.

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* Among the plants growing on the margin of the river is the cheria root, used in medicine; and the cantac, occasionally used by the hunters for food; the last has a bulbous root, ten times the size of a man's fist. In preparing it, they first wash it clean from the earth, then pound it well, and add water to the mass and stir it up; after a moment's settlement the water and fecula is poured off: this operation is repeated until it yields no more fecula, the fibrous part only being left, which is thrown away as useless: the water is then poured from the sediment, which is dried in the sun, and will keep a long time. It is reduced into powder and mixed with Indian meal or flour, and makes wholesome and agreeable food. The labour is performed by the women whilst they are keeping the camp, and their husbands are in the woods hunting.

On arriving at the mouth of the Catahoola, they landed to procure information from a Frenchman settled there. Having a grant from the Spanish government, he has made a small settlement, and keeps a ferry-boat for carrying over men and horses travelling to and from Natchez, and the settlements on Red river and on the Washita river. The country here is all alluvial. In process of time, the rivers shutting up ancient passages and elevating the banks over which their waters pass, no longer communicate with the same facility as formerly; the consequence is, that many large tracts formerly subject to inundation, are now entirely exempt from that inconvenience. Such is the situation of a most valuable tract upon which this Frenchman is settled. His house stands on an Indian mount, with several others in view. There is also a species of rampart surrounding this place, and one very elevated mount, a view and description of which is postponed till they return; their present situation not allowing of the requisite delay. The soil is equal to the best Mississippi bottoms.*

They obtained from the French settler the following list of distances between the mouth of the Red river and the post on the Washita, called fort Miro.

From the mouth of Red river to the mouth of Black river	10 leagues.
To the mouth of Catahoola, Washita, and Tenza, - -	22
To the river Ha-ha, on the right, - - - - - - - - -	1
To the Prairie de Villemont, on the same side, - - - -	5
To the bayau Louis, on the same side, rapids here, - -	1
To bayau Bœufs, on the same side, - - - - - - - -	4
To the Prairie Noyu, (drowned savanna), - - - - - -	3
To Pine Point, on the left, - - - - - - - - - - -	4½
To bayau Calumet, - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	3½
To the Coalmine, on the right, and Gypsum on the opposite shore, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	3
To the first settlement, - - - - - - - - - - - - -	12
To fort Miro, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	22
Leagues,	91

From this place they proceeded to the mouth of Washita, in lat. 35° 37′ 7″ N. and encamped on the evening of the 23d.

This river derives its appellation from the name of an Indian tribe formerly resident on its banks; the remnant of which, it is said, went into the great plains to the westward, and either compose a small tribe themselves, or are incorporated into another nation. The Black river loses its name at the junction of the Washita, Catahoola, and Tenza, although our maps represent it as taken place of the Washita. The Tenza and Catahoola are also named from Indian tribes now extinct. The latter is a creek twelve leagues long, which is the issue of a lake of the same name, eight leagues in length and about two leagues in breadth. It lies west from the mouth of the Catahoola, and communicates with the Red river during the great annual inundation. At the west or north-west angle of the lake, a creek called Little river, enters, which preserves a channel with running water at all seasons, meandering along the bed of the lake; but in all other parts its

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* There is an embankment running from the Catahoola to Black river (incloſing about two hundred acres of rich land), at preſent about ten feet high, and ten feet broad. This ſurrounds four large mounds of earth at the diſtance of a bow-ſhot from each other: each of which may be twenty feet high, one hundred feet broad, and three hundred feet long at the top; beſides a ſtupendous turret ſituate on the back part of the whole, or fartheſt from the water, whoſe baſe covers about an acre of ground, riſing by two ſteps or ſtories tapering in the aſcent, the whole ſurmounted by a great cone with its top cut off. This tower of earth on admeaſurement was found to be eighty feet perpendicular.

superfices, during the dry season from July to November, and often later, is completely drained, and becomes covered with the most luxurious herbage; the bed of the lake then becomes the residence of immense herds of deer, of turkeys, geese, crane, &c. which feed on the grass and grain. Bayau Tenza serves only to drain off a part of the waters of the inundation from the low lands of the Mississippi, which here communicate with the Black river during the season of high water.

Between the mouth of the Washita and Villemont's prairie on the right, the current of the river is gentle, and the banks favourable for towing. The lands on both sides have the appearance of being above the inundation; the timber generally such as high lands produce, being chiefly red, white and black oaks interspersed with a variety of other trees. The magnolia grandiflora, that infallible sign of the land not being subject to inundation, is not, however, among them. Along the banks a stratum of solid clay, or marle, is observable, apparently of an ancient deposition. It lies in oblique positions, making an angle of nearly thirty degrees with the horizon, and generally inclined with the descent of the river, although in a few cases the position was contrary. Timber is seen projecting from under the solid bank, which seems indurated, and unquestionably very ancient, presenting a very different appearance from recently formed soil. The river is about 80 yards wide. A league above the mouth of the Washita, the bayau Ha-ha comes in unexpectedly from the right, and is one of the many passages through which the waters of the great inundation penetrate and pervade all the low countries, annihilating, for a time, the currents of the lesser rivers in the neighbourhood of the Mississippi. The vegetation is remarkably vigorous along the alluvial banks which are covered with a thick shrubbery, and innumerable plants in full blossom at this late season.

Villemont's prairie is so named in consequence of its being included within a grant under the French government to a gentleman of that name. Many other parts on the Washita are named after their early proprietors. The French people projected and began extensive settlements on this river, but the general massacre planned, and in part executed by the Indians against them, and the consequent destruction of the Natchez tribe by the French, broke up all these undertakings and they were not recommenced under that government. Those pairies are plains, or savannas, without timber; generally very fertile, and producing an exuberance of strong, thick and coarse herbage. When a piece of ground has once got into this state, in an Indian country, it can have no opportunity of re-producing timber, it being an invariable practice to set fire to the dry grass in the fall or winter, to obtain the advantage of attracting game when the young tender grass begins to spring: this destroys the young timber, and the prairie annually gains upon the wood-land. It is probable that the immense plains known to exist in America, may owe their origin to this custom. The plains of the Washita lie chiefly on the east side, and being generally formed like the Mississippi land, sloping from the bank of the river to the great river, they are more or less subject to inundation in the rear; and in certain great floods the water has advanced so far as to be ready to pour over the margin into the Washita. This has now become a very rare thing, and it may be estimated that from a quarter of a mile to a mile in depth, will remain free from inundation during high floods. This is pretty much the case with those lands nearly as high as the post of the Washita, with the exception of certain ridges of primitive high-land; the rest being evidently alluvial, although not now subject to be inundated by the Washita river in consequence of the great depth which the bed of the river has acquired by abrasion. On approaching toward the bayau Louis, which empties its waters into the Washita on the right, a little below the rapids there is a great deal of high land on both sides, which produces pine and other timber not the growth of inundated lands. At the foot of the rapids. the navigation of the river is impeded by beds of gravel formed in it. The first rapids lie in latitude 31°. 48′. 57″. 5 N. a little above which there is a high ridge of primitive earth, studded with abundance of fragments of rocks, or stone, which appears to have been thrown up to the surface in a very irregular manner. The stone is of a friable nature, some of it having the appearance of indurated clay; the outside is blackish from exposure to the air, within it is a greyish white; it is said that in the hill the strata are regular and that good grindstones may be here obtained. The last of the rapids, which is formed by a ledge of rocks crossing the entire bed of the river, was passed in the evening of the 27th; above it the water became again like a mill pond and about one hundred yards wide. The whole of these first shoals, or rapids, embraced an extent of about a mile and a half; the obstruction was not continued, but felt at short intervals in this distance. On the right, about four leagues from the rapids, they passed the "Bayau Aux Boeufs," a little above a rocky hill: high lands and savanna is seen on the right. On sounding the river they found three fathoms water on a bottom of mud and sand. The banks of the river, above the bayau seem to retain very little alluvial soil; the highland earth, which is a sandy loam of a light grey colour, with streaks of red sand and clay, is seen on the left bank; the soil not rich, bearing pines, interspersed with red oak, hickory and dogwood. The river is from sixty to one hundred yards wide here, but decreases as you advance. The next rapid is made by a ledge of rocks traversing the river, and narrowing the water channel to about thirty yards. The width between the high banks cannot be less than one hundred yards, and the banks from thirty to forty feet high. In latitude 32°. 10′. 15″. rapids and shoals again occurred, and the channel was very narrow; the sand bars at every point extended so far into the bend as to leave little more than the breadth of the boat of water sufficiently deep for her passage, although it spreads over a width of seventy or eighty yards upon the shoal.

In the afternoon of the 31st, they passed a little plantation or settlement on the right, and at night arrived at three others adjoining each other. These settlements are on a plain or prairie, the soil of which we may be assured is alluvial from the regular slope which the land has from the river. The bed of the river is now sufficiently deep to free them from the inconvenience of its inundation; yet in the rear the waters of the Mississippi approach, and sometimes leave dry but a narrow stripe along the bank of the river. It is however now more common, that the extent of the fields cultivated (from ¼ to ½ mile) remains dry during the season of inundation; the soil here is very good, but not equal to the Mississippi bottoms; it may be esteemed second rate. At a small distance to the east are extensive cypress swamps, over which the waters of the inundation always stand to the depth of from fifteen to twenty-five feet. On the west side, after passing over the valley of the river whose breadth varies from a quarter of a mile to two miles, or more, the land assumes a considerable elevation, from one hundred to three hundred feet, and extends all along to the settlements of the Red river. These high lands are reported to be poor, and badly watered, being chiefly what is termed pine barren. There is here a ferry and road of communication between the post of the Washita, and the Natchez, and a fork of this road passes on to the settlement called the rapids, on Red river, distant from this place by computation one hundred and fifty miles.

On this part of the river lies a considerable tract of land granted by the Spanish government to the marquis of Maison Rouge, a French emigrant, who bequeathed it with all his property to M. Bouligny, son of the late colonel of the Louisiana regiment, and by him sold to Daniel Clarke. It is said to extend from the post of Washita with a breadth of two leagues, including the river, down to the bayau Calumet; the computed distance of which along the river is called thirty leagues, but supposed not more than twelve in a direct line.

On the 6th of November, in the afternoon, the party arrived at the post of the Washita, in lat. 32° 29′ 37″. 25 N. where they were politely received by lieut. Bowmar, who immediately offered the hospitality of his dwelling with all the services in his power.

From the ferry to this place the navigation of the river is, at this season, interrupted by many shoals and rapids. The general width is from eighty to a hundred yards. The water is extremely agreeable to drink, and much clearer than that of the Ohio. In this respect it is very unlike its two neighbours, the Arkansa and Red rivers, whose waters are loaded with earthy matters of a reddish brown color, giving to them a chocolate-like appearance; and, when those waters are low, are not potable, being brackish from the great number of salt springs which flow into them, and probably from the beds of rock salt over which they may pass. The banks of the river presented very little appearance of alluvial land, but furnished an infinitude of beautiful landscapes, heightened by the vivid coloring they derive from the autumnal changes of the leaf. Mr. Dunbar observes, that the change of colour in the leaves of vegetables, which is probably occasioned by the oxygen of the atmosphere acting on the vegetable matter, deprived of the protecting power of the vital principle, may serve as an excellent guide to the naturalist who directs his attention to the discovery of new objects for the use of the dyer. For he has always remarked that the leaves of those trees whose bark or wood are known to produce a dye, are changed in autumn to the same color which is extracted in the dyers vat from the woods; more especially by the use of mordants, as allum, &c. which yields oxygen: thus the foliage of the hickory, and oak, which produces the quercitron bark, is changed before its fall into a beautiful yellow; other oaks assume a fawn color, a liver color, or a blood color, and are known to yield dyes of the same complexion.

In lat. 32° 18′ N. doct. Hunter discovered along the river side a substance nearly resembling mineral coal: its appearance was that of the carbonated wood described by Kirwan. It does not easily burn; but on being applied to the flame of a candle, it sensibly increased it, and yielded a faint smell, resembling in a slight degree, that of the gum lac of common sealing wax.

Soft friable stone is common, and great quantities of gravel and sand, upon the beaches in this part of the river. A reddish clay appears in the strata, much indurated and blackened by exposure to the light and air.

The position called fort Miro being the property of a private person, who was formerly civil commandant here, the lieutenant has taken post about four hundred yards lower; has built himself some log houses, and inclosed them with a slight stockade. Upon viewing the country east of the river, it is evidently alluvial; the surface has a gentle slope from the river to the rear of the plantations. The land is of excellent quality, being a rich black mould to the depth of a foot, under which there is a friable loam of a brownish liver colour.

At the post of the Washita, they procured a boat of less draught of water than the one in which they ascended the river thus far; at noon, on the 11th of November, they proceeded on the voyage, and in the evening encamped at the plantation of Baron Bastrop.

This small settlement on the Washita, and some of the creeks falling into it, contains not more than five hundred persons, of all ages and sexes. It is reported, however, that there is a great quantity of excellent land upon these creeks, and that the settlement is capable of great extension, and may be expected, with an accession of population, to become very flourishing. There are three merchants settled at the post, who supply, at very exorbitant prices, the inhabitants with their necessaries; these, with the garrison, two small planters, and a tradesman or two, constitute the present village. A great proportion of the inhabitants continue the old practice of hunting, during the winter season, and they exchange their peltry for necessaries, with the merchants, at a low rate. During the summer these people content themselves with raising corn, barely sufficient for bread during the year. In this manner they always remain extremely poor; some few who have conquered that habit of indolence, which is always the consequence of the Indian mode of life, and attend to agriculture, live more comfortably, and taste a little the sweets of civilized life.

The lands along the river above the post, are not very inviting, being a thin poor soil, and covered with pine wood. To the right, the settlement on the bayau Barthelemi and Siard, are said to be rich land.

On the morning of the 13th, they passed an island and a strong rapid, and arrived at a little settlement below a chain of rocks, which cross the channel between an island and the main land, called Roque Raw. The Spaniard and his family, settled here, appear, from their indolence, to live miserably. The river acquires here a more spacious appearance, being about one hundred and fifty yards wide. In the afternoon they passed the bayau Barthelemi on the right, above the last settlements, and about twelve computed leagues from the post. Here commences Baron Bastrop's great grant of land from the Spanish government, being a square of twelve leagues on each side, a little exceeding a million of French acres. The banks of the river continue about thirty feet high, of which eighteen feet from the water are a clayey loam of a pale ash colour, upon which the water has deposited twelve feet of light sandy soil, apparently fertile, and of a dark brown color. This description of land is of small breadth, not exceeding half a mile on each side of the river, and may be called the valley of the Washita, beyond which there is high land covered with pines.

The soil of the "Bayau des Buttes," continues thin with a growth of small timber. This creek is named from a number of Indian mounts discovered by the hunters along its course. The margin of the river begins to be covered with such timber as usually grows on inundated land, particularly a species of white oak, vulgarly called the over-cup oak; its timber is remarkably hard, solid, ponderous and durable, and it produces a large acorn in great abundance, upon which the bear feeds, and which is very fattening to hogs.

In lat. 32° 50' 8" N. they passed a long and narrow island. The face of the country begins to change; the banks are low and steep; the river deeper and more contracted, from thirty to fifty yards in width. The soil in the neighborhood of the river is a very sandy loam, and covered with such vegetables as are found on the inundated lands of the Mississippi. The tract presents the appearance of a new soil, very different from what they passed below. This alluvial tract may be supposed the site of a great lake, drained by a natural channel, from the abrasion of the waters: since which period the annual inundations have deposited the superior soil; eighteen or twenty feet is wanting to render it habitable for man. It appears, nevertheless, well stocked with the beasts of the forest, several of which were seen.

Quantities of water fowl are beginning to make their appearance, which are not very numerous here until the cold rains and frost compel them to leave a more northern climate. Fish is not so abundant as might be expected, owing, it is said, to the inundation of the Mississippi, in the year 1799, which dammed up the Washita, some distance above the post, and produced a stagnation and consequent corruption of the waters that destroyed all the fish within its influence.

At noon on the 15th November, they passed the island of Mallet, and at ninety yards north-east from the upper point of the island, by a good observation ascertained their latitude to be 32° 59' 27". 5 N. or two seconds and a half of latitude south of the dividing line between the territories of Orleans and Louisiana. The bed of the river along this alluvial country, is generally covered with water, and the navigation uninterrupted; but in the afternoon of this day, they passed three contiguous sand bars, or beaches, called "les trois battures," and before evening the "bayau de grand Marais," or great marsh creek on the right, and "la Cypreri Chattelrau," a point of high land on the other side, which reaches within half a mile of the river. As they advanced towards the marais de saline, on the right, a stratum of dirty white clay under the alluvial tract, shewed them to be leaving the sunken, and approaching the high land country. The salt lick marsh does not derive its name from any brackishness in the water of the lake or marsh, but from its contiguity to some of the licks, sometimes called "saline," and sometimes "glaise," generally found in a clay, compact enough for potters' ware. The bayau de la Tulipe forms a communication between the lake and the river. Opposite to this place, there is a point of high land, forming a promontory, advancing within a mile of the river, and to which boats resort when the low grounds are under water. A short league above is the mouth of the grand bayau de la Saline (Salt Lick creek). This creek is of a considerable length, and navigable for small boats. The hunters ascend it, to one hundred of their leagues, in pursuit of game, and all agree that none of the springs which feed this creek are salt. It has obtained its name from the many buffaloe salt licks which have been discovered in its vicinity. Although most of these licks, by digging, furnish water which holds marine salt in solution, there exists no reason for believing that many of them would produce nitre. Notwithstanding this low alluvial tract appears in all respects well adapted to the growth of the long moss (tilandsia), none was obsered since entering it in latitude 32° 52', and as the pilot informed them none would be seen in their progress up the river, it is probable that the latitude of thirty-three degrees is about the northern limit of vegetation. The long-leaf pine, frequently the growth of rich and even inundated land, was here observed in great abundance: the short-leaved or pitch pine, on the contrary, is always found upon arid lands and generally in sandy and lofty situations.

This is the season when the poor settlers on the Washita turn out to make their annual hunt. The deer is now fat and the skins in perfection; the bear is now also in his best state, with regard to the quality of his fur, and the quantity of fat or oil he yields, as he has been feasting luxuriantly on the autumnal fruits of the forest. It is here well known that he does not confine himself, as some writers have supposed, to vegetable food; he is particularly fond of hogs flesh; sheep and calves are frequently his prey, and no animal escapes him which comes within his power, and which he is able to conquer. He often destroys the fawn when chance throws it in his way; he cannot however, discover it by smelling, notwithstanding the excellence of his scent, for nature has, as if for its protection, denied the fawn the property of leaving any effluvium upon its track, a property so powerful in the old deer.* The bear, unlike most other beasts of prey, does not kill the animal he has seized upon before he eats it; but regardless of its struggles, cries and lamentations, fastens upon, and if the expression is allowable, devours it alive. The hunters count much on their profits from the oil drawn from the bears fat, which, at New Orleans, is always of ready sale, and much esteemed for its wholesomeness in cooking, being preferred to butter or hogs lard. It is found to keep longer than any other animal oil without becoming rancid; and boiling it, from time to time, upon sweet bay leaves, restores it sweetness, or facilitates its conservation.

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* It may not be generally known to naturaliſts, that between the hoof of the deer, &c. there is found a ſack, with its mouth inclining upwards, containing more or leſs of muſk, and which, by eſcaping over the opening, in proportion to the ſecretion, cauſes the foot to leave a ſcent on the ground wherever it paſſes. During the rutting ſeaſon this muſk is ſo abundant, particularly in old males, as to be ſmelt by the hunters at a conſiderable diſtance.

In the afternoon of the 17th they passed some sand beaches, and over a few rapids. They had cane brakes on both sides of the river; the canes were small but demonstrate that the water does not surmount the bank more than a few feet. The river begins to widen as they advance: the banks of the river shew the high land soil, with a stratum of three or four feet of alluvion deposited by the river upon it. This superstratum is greyish, and very sandy, with a small admixture of loam, indicative of the poverty of the mountains and uplands where the river rises. Near this they passed through a new and very narrow channel, in which all the water of the river passes, except in time of freshes, when the interval forms an island. A little above this pass is a small clearing, called "Cache la Tulipe" (Tulip's hiding place); this is the name of a French hunter who here concealed his property. It continues the practice of both the white and red hunters to leave their skins, &c. often suspended to poles, or laid over a pole placed upon two forked posts, in sight of the river, until their return from hunting. These deposits are considered as sacred, and few examples exist of their being plundered. After passing the entrance of a bay, which within must form a great lake during the inundation, great numbers of the long leaf pine were observed; and the increased size of the canes along the river's bank, denoted a better and more elevated soil; on the left was a high hill (300 feet) covered with lofty pine trees.

The banks of the river present more the appearance of upland soil, the under stratum being a pale yellowish clay, and the alluvial soil of a dirty white, surmounted with a thin covering of a brown vegetable earth. The trees improve in appearance, growing to a considerable size and height, though yet inferiour to those on the alluvial banks of the Mississippi. After passing the "Bayau de Hachis," on the left, points of high land, not subject to be overflowed, frequently touch the river and the valley is said to be more than a league in breadth on both sides. On the left are pine hills called "Code de Champignole." The river is not more than fifty or sixty yards wide. On the morning of the 20th they passed a number of sand beaches, and some rapids, but found good depth of water between them. A creek called "Chemin Couvert," which forms a deep ravine in the high lands, here enters the river; almost immediately above this is a rapid where the water in the river is confined to a channel of about forty yards in width; above it they had to quit the main channel, on account of the shallowness and rapidity of the water, and pass along a narrow channel of only sixty feet wide: without a guide a stranger might take this passage for a creek.

Notwithstanding the lateness of the season, and the northern latitude they were in, they this day met with an alligator. The banks of the river are covered with cane, or thick under brush, frequently so interwoven with thorns and briars as to be impenetrable. Birch, maple, holly, and two kinds of wood to which names have not yet been given, except "water side wood," are here met with; as also persimons and small black grapes. The margin of the river is fringed with a variety of plants and vines, among which are several species of convolvulus.

On the left they passed a hill and cliff one hundred feet perpendicular, crowned with pines, and called "Cote de Finn" (Fin's hill) from which a chain of high land continues some distance. The cliff presents the appearance of an ash coloured clay. A little farther to the right is the Bayau d'Acasia (Locust creek). The river varies here from eighty to an hundred yards in width, presenting frequent indications of iron along its banks, and some thin strata of iron ore. The ore is from half an inch to three inches in thickness.

On the morning of the 22d of November, they arrived at the road of the Chadadoquis Indian nation leading to the Arkansa nation ; a little beyond this is the Ecor a Fabri (Fabri's cliffs) from 80 to 100 feet high ; and a little distance above, a smaller cliff called "Le Petit Ecor a Fabri" (the Little Cliff of Fabri) : these cliffs appear chiefly to be composed of ash coloured sand, with a stratum of clay at the base, such as runs all along under the banks of this river. Above these cliffs are several rapids ; the current is swifter, and denotes their ascent into a higher country : the water becomes clear, and equal to any in its very agreeable taste and as drinking water. In the river are immense beds of gravel and sand, over which the water passes with great velocity in the season of its floods, carrying with it vast quantities of drift wood, which it piles up, in many places, to the height of twenty feet above the present surface, pointing out the difficulty and danger of navigation in certain times of the flood ; accidents, however, are rare with the canoes of the country.

As the party ascended they found the banks of the river less elevated, being only from nine to twelve feet and are probably surmounted by the freshes some feet. The river becomes more obstructed by rapids, and sand and gravel beaches, among which are found fragments of stone of all forms, and a variety of colours, some highly polished and rounded by friction. The banks of the river in this upper country suffer greatly by abrasion, one side and sometimes both being broken down by every flood.

At a place called "Auges d'Arclon," (Arclon's troughs) is laminated iron ore, and a stratum of black sand, very tenacious, shining with minute chrystals. The breadth of the river is here about eighty yards : in some places, however, it is enlarged by islands, in others, contracted to eighty or one hundred feet. Rocks of a greyish colour, and rather friable, are here found in many places on the river.* On the banks grow willows of a different form from those found below, and on the margin of the Mississippi ; the last are very brittle ; these, on the contrary, are extremely pliant, resembling the osier, of which they are probably a species.

At noon on the 24th, they arrived at the confluence of the lesser Missouri with the Washita ; the former is a considerable branch, perhaps the fourth of the Washita, and comes in from the left hand. The hunters often ascend the Little Missouri, but are not inclined to penetrate far up, because it reaches near the great plains or prairies upon the Red river, visited by the lesser Osage tribes of Indians, settled on Arkansa ; these last frequently carry war into the Chadadoquis tribe settled on the Red river, about west, south-west from this place, and indeed they are reported not to spare any nation or people. They are prevented from visiting the head waters of the Washita by the steep hills in which they rise. These mountains are so difficult to travel over, that the savages not having an object sufficiently desirable, never attempt to penetrate to this river, and it is supposed to be unknown to the nation. The Cadadoquis (or Cadaux, as the French pronounce the word) may be considered as Spanish Indians ; they boast, and it is said with truth, that they never have imbrued their hands in the blood of a white man. It is said that the stream of the Little Missouri, some distance from its mouth, flows over a bright splendid bed of mineral of a yellowish white colour, (most probably martial pyrites) that thirty years ago, several of the inhabitants, hunters, worked upon this mine, and sent a quantity of the ore to the government at New Orleans, and they were prohibited from working any more.

There is a great sameness in the appearance of the river banks : the islands are skirted with osier, and immediately within, on the bank, grows a range of birch trees and some willows; the more elevated banks are covered with cane, among which grows the oak, maple, elm, sycamore, ash, hickory, dog wood, holly, iron wood, &c. From the pilot they learned that there is a body of excellent land on the Little Missouri, particularly on the creek called the "Bayau a terre noire," which falls into it. This land extends to Red river and is connected with the great prairies which form the hunting grounds of the Cadaux nation, consisting of about two hundred warriors. They are warlike, but frequently unable to defend themselves against the tribe of Osages, settled on the Arcansa river, who passing round the mountains at the head of the Washita, and along the prairies, which separate them from the main chain on the west, where the waters of the Red and Acansa rivers have their rise, pass into the Cadaux country, and rob and plunder them.

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* The banks rise into hills of free stone of a very sharp and fine grit, fit for grind stones. The strata irregular, inclining from 20 degrees to 30 degrees down the river.

The water in the river Washita rising, the party are enabled to pass the numerous rapids and shoals which they meet with in the upper country; some of which are difficult of ascent. The general height of the main banks of the river is from six to twelve feet above the level of the water; the land is better in quality, the canes, &c. shewing a more luxuriant vegetation. It is subject to inundation, and shews a brown soil mixed with sand. Near Cache Maçon (Maison's hiding place) on the right, they stopped to examine a supposed coal mine: doctor Hunter and the pilot set out for this purpose and at about a mile and a half north-west from the boat, in the bed of a creek,* they found a substance similar to what they had before met with under that name, though more advanced towards a state of perfect coal. At the bottom of the creek, in a place then dry, was found detached pieces of from 50 to 100 pounds weight, adjoining to which lay wood changing into the same substance. A stratum of this coal, 6 inches thick, lay on both sides of this little creek, over another of yellow clay, and covered by one foot of gravel; on the gravel is 8 inches of loam, which bears a few inches of vegetable mould. This stratum of coal is about 3 feet higher than the water in the creek, and appears manifestly to have been, at some period, the surface of the ground. The gravel and loam have been deposited there since, by the waters. Some pieces of this coal were very black and solid, of an homogeneous appearance, much resembling pit coal, but of less specifick gravity. It does not appear sufficiently impregnated with bitumen, but may be considered as vegetable matter in the progress of transmutation to coal.

Below the "Bayau de l'eau Froide," which runs into the Washita from the right, the river is one hundred and seventy yards, flowing through tolerably good land. They passed a beautiful forest of pines, and on the 28th fell in with an old Dutch hunter and his party, consisting in all of five persons.

This man has resided forty years on the Washita, and before that period, has been up the Arcansa river, the White river, and the river St. Francis; the two last, he informs, are of difficult navigation, similar to the Washita, but the Arkansa river is of great magnitude, having a large and broad channel, and when the water is low, has great sand banks, like those in the Mississippi. So far as he has been up it the navigation is safe and commodious, without impediments from rocks, shoals, or rapids; its bed being formed of mud and sand. The soil on it is of the first rate quality. The country is easy of access, being lofty open forests, unembarrassed by cans or undep growth. The water is disagreeable to drink, being of a red colour and brackish when the river is low. A multitude of creeks which flow into the Arkansa furnish sweet water, which the voyager is obliged to carry with him for the supply of his immediate wants. This man confirms the accounts of silver being abundant up that river: he has not been so high as to see it himself, but says he received a silver pin from a hunter, who assured him that he himself collected the virgin silver from the rock, out of which he made the epinglete by hammering it out. The tribe of the Osage live higher up than this position, but the hunters rarely go so high, being afraid of these savages, who are at war with all the world, and destroy all strangers they meet with. It is reported that the Arcansa nation, with a part of the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Shawneese, &c. have formed a league, and are actually gone, or going, 800 strong, against these depredators, with a view to destroy or drive them entirely off, and possess themselves of their fine prairies, which are most abundant hunting ground, being plentifully stocked with buffaloe, elk, deer, bear, and every other beast of the chase common to those latitudes in America. This hunter having given information of a small spring in their vicinity, from which he frequently supplied himself by evaporating the water, doctor Hunter, with a party, accompanied him, on the morning of the 29th November, to the place. They found a saline, about a mile and a half north of the camp from whence they set out, and near a creek which enters the Washita a little above. It is situated in the bottom of the bed of a dry gulley. The surrounding land is rich, and well timbered, but subject to inumdation, except an Indian mount on the creek side, having a base of eighty or a hundred feet diameter, and twenty feet high. After digging about three feet, through blue clay, they came to a quicksand, from which the water flowed in abundance: its taste was salt and bitter, resembling that of water in the ocean. In a second hole it required them to dig six feet before they reached the quicksand, in doing which they threw up several broken pieces of Indian pottery. The specifick gravity, compared with the river, was, from the first pit, or that three feet deep, 1,02720, from the second pit, or that six feet deep, 1,02104, yielding a saline mass, from the evaporation of ten quarts, which, when dry, weighed eight ounces: this brine is, therefore, about the same strength as that of the ocean on our coast, and twice the strength of the famous licks in Kentucky called Bullet's lick, and Mann's lick, from which so much salt is made.

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* Called Coal-mine creek.

The "fourche de Cadaux" (Cadadoquis fork) which they passed on the morning of the 30th, is about one hundred yards wide at its entrance into the Washita, from the left: immediately beyond which, on the same side the land is high, probably elevated three hundred feet above the water. The shoals and rapids here impede their progress. At noon they deduced their latitude, by observation, to be 30°. 11′. 37″. N. Receiving information of another salt lick, or saline, doctor Hunter landed, with a party, to view it. The pit was found in a low flat place, subject to be overflowed from the river; it was wet and muddy, the earth on the surface yellow, but on digging through about 4 feet of blue clay, the salt water oozed from a quicksand. Ten quarts of this water produced, by evaporation, 6 ounces of a saline mass, which, from taste, however, shewed an admixture of soda, and muriated magnesia, but the marine salt greatly preponderated. The specifick gravity was about 1,076, probably weakened from the rain which had fallen the day before. The ascent of the river becomes more troublesome, from the rapids and currents, particularly at the "isle du bayau des Roches" (Rocky creek island) where it required great exertions, and was attended with some hazard to pass them. This island is three fourths of a mile in length. The river presents a series of shoals, rapids, and small cataracts; and they passed several points of high land, full of rocks and stones, much harder and more solid than they had yet met with.

The rocks were all silicious, with their fissures penetrated by sparry matter. Indications of iron were frequent, and fragments of poor ore were common, but no rich ore of that, or any other metal, was found. Some of the hills appear well adapted to the cultivation of the vine ; the soil being a sandy loam, with a considerable proportion of gravel, and a superficial covering of good vegetable black earth. The natural productions are, several varieties of oak, pine, dogwood, holly, &c. with a scattering undergrowth of whortleberry, hawthorn, china briar, and a variety of small vines.

Above the Isle de Mallon, the country wears another prospect, high lands and rocks frequently approach the river. The rocks in grain, resemble free stone, and are hard enough to be used as hand mill stones, to which purpose they are frequently applied. The quality of the lands improves, the stratum of vegetable earth being from six to twelve inches, of a dark brown colour, with an admixture of loam and sand. Below Deer Island they passed a stratum of free stone, fifty feet thick, under which is a quarry of imperfect slate in perpendicular layers. About a league from the river, and a little above the slate quarry, is a considerable plain, called "Prairie de Champignole," often frequented by buffaloe. Some salt licks are found near it, and in many situations on both sides of this river, there are said to be salines which may hereafter be rendered very productive, and from which the future settlements may be abundantly supplied.

About 4 miles below the "chuttes," (falls) they, from a good observation, found the latitude 34°. 21′ 25″. 5. The land on either hand continues to improve in quality, with a sufficient stratum of dark earth of brownish colour. Hills frequently rise out of the level country, full of rocks and stones, hard and flinty, and often resembling Turkey oil stones. Of this kind was a promontory which came in from the right hand, a little below the chuttes ; at a distance it presented the appearance of ruined buildings and fortifications, and several insulated masses of rock conveyed the idea of redoubts and out-works. This effect was heightened by the rising of a flock of swans which had taken their station in the water, at the foot of these walls. As the voyagers approached, the birds floated about majestically on the glassy surface of the water, and in tremulous accents seemed to consult upon means of safety. The whole was a sublime picture. In the afternoon of the third of December, they reached the chuttes, and found the falls to be occasioned by a chain of rocks of the same hard substance seen below, extending in the direction of north-east and south-west, quite across the river. The water passes through a number of branches worn by the impetuosity of the torrent where it forms so many cascades. The chain of rock or hill on the left, appears to have been cut down to its present level by the abrasion of the waters. By great exertion, and lightening the boat, they passed the chuttes this evening and encamped just above the cataracts, and within the hearing of their incessant roar.

Immediately above the chuttes, the current of the water is slow, to another ledge of hard free stone ; the reach between is spacious, not less than two hundred yards wide, and terminated by a hill, three hundred feet high covered with beautiful pines : this is a fine situation for building. In latitude 34° 25′ 48″ they passed a very dangerous rapid, from the number of rocks which obstruct the passage of the water, and break it into foam. On the right of the rapid is a high rocky hill covered with very handsome pine woods. The strata of the rock has an inclination of 30° to the horizon in the direction of the river descending. This hill may be three hundred or three hundred and fifty feet high ; a border or list of green cane skirts the margin of the river, beyond which generally rises a high and sometimes a barren hill. Near another rapid they passed a hill on the left, containing a large body of blue slate. A small distance above the bayau de Saline they had to pass a rapid of one hundred and fifty yards in length, and four feet and a half fall, which, from its velocity, the French have denominated "La Cascade." Below the cascade there are rocky hills on both sides composed of very hard free stone. The stone in the bed of the river, and which has been rolled from the upper country, was of the hardest flint, or of a quality resembling the Turkey oil stone. "Fourche au Tigree," (Tyger's creek), which comes in from the right, a little above the cascade, is said to have many extensive tracts of rich level land upon it. The rocky hills here frequently approach the Washita on both sides; rich bottoms are nevertheless infrequent, and the upland is sometimes of moderate elevation and tolerably level. The stones and rocks here met with have their fissures filled by sparry and chrystaline matter.

Wild turkies become more abundant and less difficult of approach than below; and the howl of the wolves is heard during the night.

To the "Fourche of Calfat," (Caulker's creek) where the voyage terminates, they found level and good land on the right and high hills on the left hand. After passing over a very precipitous rapid, seemingly divided into four steps or falls, one of which was at least fifteen inches in perpendicular height, and which together could not be less than five and a half feet, they arrived at Ellis's camp, a small distance below the Fourche au Calfat, where they stopped on the sixth of December, as the pilot considered it the most convenient landing from whence to carry their necessary baggage to the hot springs, the distance being about three leagues. There is a creek about two leagues higher up, called "bayau des sources chauds," (hot spring creek) upon the banks of which the hot springs are situated at about two leagues from its mouth. The banks of it are hilly, and the road less eligible than from Ellis's camp.

On ascending the hill, to encamp, they found the land very level and good, some plants in flower, and a great many evergreen vines; the forest oak with an admixture of other woods. The latitude of this place is 34° 27′ 31″. 5. The ground on which they encamped was above fifty feet above the water in the river, and supposed to be thirty feet higher than the inundations. Hills of considerable height, and clothed with pine were in view, but the land around, and extending beyond their view, lies handsomely for cultivation. The superstratum is of a blackish-brown colour, upon a yellow basis, the whole intermixed with gravel and blue schistus, frequently so far decomposed as to have a strong allumnious taste. From their camp, on the Washita, to the hot springs, a distance of about nine miles, the first six miles of the road is in a westerly direction without many sinuosities, and the remainder northwardly, which courses are necessary to avoid some very steep hills. In this distance they found 3 principal salt licks, and some inferiour ones, which are all frequented by buffaloe, deer, &c. The soil around them is a white, tenacious clay, probably fit for potters' ware; hence the name of "glaise," which the French hunters have bestowed upon most of the licks, frequented by the beast of the forest, many of which exhibit no saline impregnation. The first two miles from the river camp is over level land of the second rate quality; the timber chiefly oak, intermixed with other trees common to the climate, and a few scattering pines. Further on, the lands, on either hand, rise into gently swelling hills, covered with handsome pine woods. The road passes along a valley frequently wet by numerous rills and springs of excellent water which issue from the foot of the hills. Near the hot springs the hills become more elevated, steeper of ascent and rocky. They are here called mountains, although none of them in view exceed four or five hundred feet in altitude. It is said that mountains of more than five times the elevation of these hills are to be seen in the north-west, towards the sources of the Washita. One of them is called the glass, crystal, or shining mountain, from the vast number of hexagonal prisms of very transparent & colourless crystal which are found on its surface; they are generally surmounted by pyramids at one end, rarely on both. These crystals do not produce a double refraction of the rays of light. Many searches have been made over these mountains for the precious metals, but it is believed without success.

At the hot springs they found an open log cabin, and a few huts of split boards, all calculated for summer encampment, and which had been erected by persons resorting to the springs for the recovery of their health.

They slightly repaired these huts, or cabins, for their accommodation during the time of their detention at the springs, for the purpose of examining them and the surrounding country; and making such astronomical observations as were necessary for ascertaining their geographical position.

It is understood that the hot springs are included within a grant of some hundred acres, granted by the late Spanish commandant of the Washita, to some of his friends, but it is not believed that a regular patent was ever issued for the place; and it cannot be asserted that residence, with improvement here, form a plea to claim the land upon.

On their arrival they immediately tasted the waters of the hot springs, that is, after a few minutes cooling, for it was impossible to approach it with the lips when first taken up, without scalding: the taste does not differ from that of good water rendered hot by culinary fire.

On the 10th they visited all the hot springs. They issue on the east side of the valley, where the huts are, except one spring, which rises on the west bank of the creek, from the sides and foot of a hill. From the small quantity of calcareous matter yet deposited, the western spring does not appear to be of long standing: a natural conduit probably passes under the bed of the creek, and supplies it. There are four principal springs rising immediately on the east bank of the creek, one of which may be rather said to spring out of the gravel bed of the run; a fifth, a smaller one than that above mentioned, as rising on the west side of the creek; and a sixth, of the same magnitude, the most northerly, and rising near the bank of the creek: these are all the sources that merit the name of springs, near the huts; but there is a considerable one below, and all along, at intervals, the warm water oozes out, or drops from the bank into the creek, as appears from the condensed vapour floating along the margin of the creek where the drippings occur.

The hill from which the hot springs issue is of a conical form, terminating at the top with a few loose fragments of rock, covering a flat space twenty-five feet in diameter. Although the figure of the hill is conical it is not entirely insulated, but connected with the neighbouring hills by a very narrow ridge. The primitive rock of this hill, above the base, is principally silicious, some part of it being of the hardest flint, others a freestone extremely compact and solid, and of various colours. The base of the hill, and for a considerable extent, is composed of a blackish blue schistus, which divides into perpendicular lamina like blue slate. The water of the hot springs is, therefore, delivered from the silicious rock, generally invisible at the surface from the mass of calcareous matter with which it is incrusted, or rather buried, and which is perpetually precipitating from the water of the springs: a small proportion of iron, in the form of a red calx, is also deposited; the colour of which is frequently distinguishable in the lime.

In ascending the hill several patches of rich black earth are found, which appear to be formed by the decomposition of the calcareous matter: in other situations the superficial earth is penetrated, or encrusted, by limestone, with fine lamina, or minute fragments of iron ore.

The water of the hot springs must formerly nave issued at a greater elevation in the hill, and run over the surfaee, having formed a mass of calcaneous rock one hundred feet perpendicular, by its deposition. In this high situation they found a spring, whose temperature was 140°. of Farenheit's thermometer. After passing the calcareous region they found the primitive hill covered by a forest of not very large trees, consisting chiefly of oak, pine, cedar, holly, hawthorn, and others common to the climate, with a great variety of vines, some said to produce black, and others yellow grapes, both excellent in their kinds. The soil is rocky, interspersed with gravel, sand, and fine vegetable mould. On reaching the height of two hundred feet perpendicular, a considerable change in the soil was observable; it was stony and gravelly, with a superficial coat of black earth, but immediately under it lies a stratum of fat, tenacious, soapy, red clay, inclining to the colour of bright Spanish snuff, homogeneous, with scarcely any admixture of sand, no saline, but rather a soft agreeable taste: the timber diminishes, and the rocks increase in size to the summit. The whole height is estimated at three hundred feet above the level of the valley.

On examining the four principal springs, or those which yield the greatest quantity of water, or of the highest temperature, No. 1 was found to raise the mercury to 150°. No. 2 to 154°. No. 3 to 136°. and No. 4 to 132 degrees of Farenheit's thermometer: the last is on the west side of the creek: No. 3 is a small basin in which there is a considerable quantity of green matter, having much the appearance of a vegetable body, but detached from the bottom, yet connected with it by something like a stem, which rests in calcareous matter. The body of one of these pseudo plants was from 4 to 5 feet in diameter; the bottom a smooth film of some tenacity, and the upper surface divided into ascending fibres of ½ or ¾ of an inch long, resembling the gills of a fish, in transverse rows. A little further on was another small muddy basin, in which the water was warm to the finger: in it was a vermes about ½ an inch long, with a moving serpentine or vermicular motion. It was invariably observed, that the green matter forming on stones & the leaves covered a stratum of calcareous earth, sometimes a little hard, or brittle, at others soft and imperfect. From the bottom of one of the hot springs a frequent ebullition of gas was observed, which not having the means of collecting, they could not ascertain its nature: it was not inflammable, and there is little doubt of its being carbonic acid, from the quantity of lime, & the iron, held in solution by the water.

They made the following rough estimate of the quantity of water delivered by the springs. There are four principal springs, two of inferiour note, one rising out of the gravel, and a number of drippings and drainings, all issuing from the margin, or from under the rock which overhangs the creek. Of the four first mentioned, three deliver nearly equal quantities, but No. 1, the most considerable, delivers about five times as much as one of the other three; the two of inferiour note may, together, be equal to one; and all the droppings, and small springs, are probably underrated at double the quantity of one of the three; that is, all together, they will deliver a quantity equal to eleven times the water issuing from the one most commodiously situated for measurement. This spring filled a vessel of eleven quarts in 11 seconds, hence the whole quantity of hot water delivered from the springs at the base of the hill is 165 gallons a minute, or 3771½ hogsheads in 24 hours, which is equal to a handsome brook, and might work an over-shot mill. In cool weather condensed vapour is seen rising out of the gravel bed of the creek, from springs which cannot be taken into account. During the summer and fall the creek receives little or no water but what is supplied by the hot springs: at that season itself is a hot bath, too hot, indeed, near the springs; so that a person may choose the temperature most agreeable to himself, by selecting a natural basin near to, or farther from, the principal spring. At three or four miles below the springs the water is tepid and unpleasant to drink.

From the western mountain, estimated to be of equal height with that from which the hot springs flow, there are several fine prospects. The valley of the Washita, comprehended between the hills on either side seemed to be a perfect flat, and about twelve miles wide. On all hands were seen the hills, or mountains, as they are here called, rising behind each other. In the direction of north, the most distant were estimated to be fifty miles off, and are supposed to be those of the Arkansa river, or the rugged mountains which divide the waters of the Arkansa from those of the Washita, and prevent the Osage Indians from visiting the latter, of whom they are supposed ignorant, otherwise their excursions here would prevent this place from being visited by white persons, or other Indians. In a south west direction, at about forty miles distance, is seen a perfectly level ridge, supposed to be the high prairies of the Red river.

Notwithstanding the severity of the weather, a considerable number, and some variety of plants were in flower, and others retained their verdure: indeed the ridge was more temperate than the valley below; there it was cold, damp, and penetrating; here dry, and the atmosphere mild. Of the plants growing here was a species of cabbage: the plants grow with expanded leaves spreading on the ground, of a deep green, with a shade of purple: the taste of the cabbage was plainly predominant, with an agreeable warmth, inclining to that of the radish; several tap-roots penetrated into the soil, of a white colour, having the taste of horse-radish, but much milder. A quantity of them taken to the camp and dressed, proved palatable and mild. It is not probable that cabbage seed has been scattered on this ridge; the hunters ascending this river have always had different objects. Until further elucidation, this cabbage must be considered as indigenous to this sequestered quarter, and may be denominated the cabbage radish of the Washita. They found a plant, then green, called by the French "racine rouge," (red root), which is said to be a specifick in female obstructions; it has also been used, combined with the China root, to dye red, the last probably acting as a mordant. The top of this ridge is covered with rocks of a flinty kind, and so very hard as to be improper for gun-flints, for when applied to that use it soon digs cavities in the hammer of the lock. This hard stone is generally white, but frequently clouded with red, brown, black, and other colours. Here and there fragments of iron stone were met with, and where a tree had been overturned, its roots brought to view fragments of schistus, which were suffering decomposition from exposure to the atmosphere. On digging where the slope of the hill was precipitous, they found the second stratum to be a reddish clay, resembling that found on the conical hill, east of the camp. At two-thirds down the hill, the rock was a hard freestone, intermixed with fragments of flint, which had probably rolled from above. Still lower was found a blue schistus, in a state tending to decomposition where exposed to the atmosphere, but hard and resembling coarse slate in the interiour. Many stones had the appearance of Turkey oil stones: at the foot of the hill it expands into good farming lands.

Dr. Hunter, upon examining the waters of the hot springs, obtained the following results:

It differed nothing from the hot water in smell or taste, but caused a slight eructation shortly after drinking it.

Its specifick gravity is equal to rain or distilled water.

It gave to litamus paper, a slight degree of redness, evincing the presence of the carbonick acid, or fixed air sulphurick, and threw down a few detached particles. Oxylat of ammoniack caused a deposition and white cloud, shewing the presence of a small portion of lime. Prusiat of potash produced a slight and scarcely perceptible tinge of blue, designating the presence of a small quantity of iron.

Sixteen pounds of water, evaporated to dryness, left ten grains of a grey powder, which proved to be lime.

The myrtle wax tree grows in the vicinity of the springs. At the season in which the voyagers were there, the wax was no longer green, but had changed its colour to a greyish-white, from its long exposure to the weather. The berry, when examined by the microscope, is less than the smallest garden pea, approaching to an oval in form. The nuclus, or real seed, is the size of the seed of a radish, and is covered with a number of kidney shaped glands, of a brown colour and sweet taste; these glands secrete the wax which completely envelopes them, and, at this season, gives to the whole the appearance of an imperfectly white berry. This is a valuable plant and merits attention: its favourite position is a dry soil, rather poor, and looking down upon the water. It is well adapted to ornament the margins of canals, lakes, or rivulets. The cassina yapon is equally beautiful, and proper for the same purpose: it grows here along the banks of this stony creek, intermingled with the myrtle, and bears a beautiful little red berry, very much resembling the red currant.

The rock, through which the hot springs either pass or trickle over, appears undermined by the waters of the creek. The hot water is continually depositing calcareous, and, perhaps, some silicious matter, forming new rocks, always augmenting and projecting their promontories over the running water of the creek, which prevents its formation below the surface. Wherever this calcareous crust is seen spreading over the bank and margin of the creek, there, most certainly, the hot water will be found, either running over the surface, or through some channel, perhaps below the new rock, or dripping from the edges of the overhanging precipice. The progress of nature in the formation of this new rock is curious and worthy the attention of the mineralogist. When the hot water issues from the fountain, it frequently spreads over a superficies of some extent; so far as it reaches, on either hand, there is a deposition of, or growth of green matter. Several lamina of this green matter will be found lying over each other, and immediately under, and in contact with the inferiour lamina, which is not thicker than paper, is found a whitish substance resembling a coagulum; when viewed with a microscope, this last is also found to consist of several, sometimes a good number of lamina, of which that next the green is the finest and thinnest, being the last formed; those below increasing in thickness and tenacity, until the last terminates in a soft earthy matter, which reposes in the more solid rock. Each lamina of the coagulum is penetrated in all its parts by calcareous grains, extremely minute, and divided in the more recent web, but much larger and occupying the whole of the inferiour lamina. The understratum is continually consolidating, and adding bulk and height to the rock. When this acquires such an elevation as to stop the passage of the water, it finds another course over the rock, hill, or margin of the creek, forming in turn, accumulations of matter over the whole of the adjacent space. When the water has found itself a new channel, the green matter, which sometimes acquires a thickness of half an inch, is speedily converted into a rich vegetable earth, and becomes the food of plants. The surface of the calcareous rock also decomposes and forms the richest black mould intimately mixed with a considerable portion of soil; plants and trees vegetate luxuriantly upon it.

On examining a piece of ground, upon which the snow dissolved as it fell, and which was covered with herbage, they found, in some places, a calcareous crust on the surface; but in general a depth of from five inches to a foot of the richest black mould. The surface was sensibly warm to the touch. In the air the mercury in the thermometer stood at 44°; when placed four inches under the surface, and covered with earth, it rose rapidly to 68°;

and upon the calcareous rock, eight inches beneath the surface, it rose to 80°. This result was uniform over the whole surface, which was about a quarter of an acre.

On searching they found a spring, about fifteen inches under the surface, in the water of which the thermometer shewed a temperature of 130°. Beneath the black mould was found a brown mixture of lime and silex, very loose and divisible, apparently in a state of decomposition, and progressing towards the formation of black mould; under this brownish mass it became gradually whiter and harder, to the depth of from six to twelve inches, where it was a calcareous sparkling stone. It was evident that the water had passed over this place, and formed a flat superficies of silicious lime stone; and that its position, nearly level, had faciliated the accumulation of earth, in proportion as the decomposition advanced. Similar spots of ground were found higher up the hill, resembling little savannas, near which hot springs were always discovered, which had once flowed over them. It appears probable that the hot water of the springs, at an early period, had all issued from its grand reservoir in the hill, at a much greater elevation than at present. The calcareous crust may be traced up, in most situations on the west side of the hill looking down the creek and valley, to a certain height, perhaps one hundred feet perpendicular; in this region the hill rises precipitously, and is studded with hard silicious stones; below the descent is more gradual, and the soil a calcareous black earth. It is easy to discriminate the primitive hill, from that which has accumulated, by precipitation, from the water of the springs; this last is entirely confined to the west side of the hill, and washed at its base by the waters of the creek, no hot spring being visible in any other part of its circumference. By actual measurement along the base of the hill the influenee of the springs is found to extend seventy perches, in a direction a little to the east of north: along the whole of this space the springs have deposited stony matter, calcareous, with an addition of silex, or crystalized lime. The accumulation of calcareous matter is more considerable at the north end of the hill than the south; the first may be above a hundred feet perpendicular, but sloping much more gradually that the primitive hill above, until it approaches the creek, where not unfrequently it terminates in a precipice of from six to twenty feet. The difference between the primitive and secondary hill is so striking, that a superficial observer must notice it; the first is regularly very steep, and studded with rock and stone of the hardest flint and other silicious compounds, and a superficies of two or three inches of good mould covers a red clay; below, on the secondary hill, which carries evident marks of recent formation, no flint, or silicious stone, is found; the calcareous rock conceals all from view, and is, itself, frequently covered by much fine rich earth. It would seem that this compound, precipitated from the hot waters, yields easily to the influence of the atmosphere; for where the waters cease to flow over any portion of the rock, it speedily decomposes; probably more rapidly from the heat communicated from the interiour of the hill, as insulated masses of the rock are observed to remain without change.

The cedar, the wax myrtle, and the cassina yapon, all evergreens, attach themselves particularly to the calcareous region, and seem to grow and thrive even in the clefts of the solid rock.

A spring, enjoying a freedom of position, proceeds with great regularity in depositing the matter it holds in solution; the border or rim of its basin forms an elevated ridge, from whence proceeds a glacis all around, where the waters have flowed for some time over one part of the brim; this becomes more elevated, and the water has to seek a passage where there is less resistance; thus forming, in miniature, a crater, resembling in shape the conical summit of a volcano. The hill being steep above the progress of petrifaction is stopped on that side, and the waters continue to flow and spread abroad, incrusting the whole face of the hill below. The last formed calcareous border of the circular basin is soft, and easily divided; at a small depth it is more compact; and at a depth of six inches it is generally hard white stone. If the bottom of the basin is stirred up, a quantity of the red calx of iron rises, and escapes over the summit of the crater.

Visitants to the hot springs, having observed shrubs and trees with their roots in the hot water, have been induced to try experiments, by sticking branches of trees in the run of hot water. Some branches of the wax myrtle were found thrust into the bottom of a spring run, the water of which was 130°. by Fahrenheit's thermometer; the foliage and fruit of the branch were not only sound and healthy, but at the surface of the water roots were actually sprouting from it: on pulling it up the part which had penetrated the hot mud was found decayed.

The green substance discoverable at the bottom of the hot springs, and which at first sight has the appearance of plush, on examination by the microscope, was found to be a vegetable production. A film of green matter spreads itself on the calcareous base, from which rise fibres more than half an inch in length, forming a beautiful vegetation. Before the microscope it sparkled with innumerable nodules of lime, some part of which was beautifully crystalized. This circumstance might cause a doubt of its being a true vegetable, but its great resemblance to some of the mosses, particularly the byssi, and the discovery which Mr. Dunbar made of its being the residence of animal life, confirmed his belief in its being a true moss. After a diligent search he discovered a very minute shell fish, of the bivalve kind, inhabiting this moss; its shape nearly that of the fresh water muscle; the colour of the shell a greyish brown, with spots of a purplish colour. When the animal is undisturbed it opens the shell, and thrusts out four legs, very transparent, and articulated like those of a quadruped; the extremities of the fore legs are very slender and sharp, but those of the hind legs somewhat broader, apparently armed with minute toes: from the extremity of each shell issues three of four forked hairs, which the animal seems to possess the power of moving; the fore legs are probably formed for making incisions into the moss for the purpose of procuring access to the juices of the living plant, upon which, no doubt, it feeds: it may be provided with a proboscis, although it did not appear while the animal was under examination: the hind legs are well adapted for propelling it in its progress over the moss, or through the water.

It would be desirable to ascertain the cause of that perpetual fire, which keeps up the high temperature of so many springs, as flow from this hill, at a considerable distance from each other: upon looking around, however, sufficient data for the solution of the difficulty is not discoverable. Nothing of a volcanick nature is to be seen in this country; neither could they learn that any evidence in favour of such a supposition was to be found in the mountains connected with this river. An immense bed of dark blue schistus appears to form the base of the hot spring hill, and of all those in its neighbourhood: the bottom of the creek is formed of it; and pieces are frequently met with rendered soft by decomposition, and possessing a strong alumnious taste, requiring nothing but lixiviation and crystalization to complete the manufacture of alum. As bodies undergoing chemical changes generally produced an alteration of temperature, the heat of these springs may be owing to the disengagement of calorick, or the decomposition of the schistus: another and perhaps a more satisfactory cause may be assigned: it is well known, that within the circle of the waters of this river vast beds of martial pyrites exist; they have not yet, however, been discovered in the vicinage of the hot springs, but may, nevertheless, form immense beds under the bases of these hills ; and as in one place at least, there is evidence of the presence of bitumen,* the union of these agents will in the progress of decomposition, by the admission of air and moisture, produce degrees of heat capable of supporting the phenomena of the hot springs. No sulphurick acid is present in this water ; the springs may be supplied by the vapour of heated water, ascending from caverns where the heat is generated, or the heat may be immediately applied to the bottom of an immense natural caldron of rock, contained in the bowels of the hill, from which as a reservoir the springs may be supplied.

A series of accurate observations determined the latitude of the hot springs to be 34° 31′ 4″, 16 N. and long 6h. 11′ 25″, or 92° 50′ 45″ west from the meridian of Greenwich.

While Mr. Dunbar was making arrangements for transporting the baggage back to the river camp, doctor Hunter, with a small party, went on an excursion into the country. He left the hot springs on the morning of the 27th, and after travelling sometimes over hills and steep craggy mountains with narrow valleys between them, then up the valleys and generally by the side of a branch emptying into the Washita, they reached the main branch of the Calfat in the evening, about twelve miles from the springs. The stones they met with during the first part of the day were silicious, of a whitish-grey, with flints white, cream-coloured, red, &c. The beds of the rivulets, and often a considerable way up the hills, shewed immense bodies of schistus, both blue and grey, some of it efflorescing and tasting strongly of alum. The latter part of the day, they travelled over and between hills of black, hard, and compact flint in shapeless masses, with schist as before. On ascending these high grounds you distinctly perceive the commencement of the piney region, beginning at the height of sixty or seventy feet and extending to the top. The soil in these narrow valleys is thin and full of stones. The next day, which was stormy, they reached a branch of the bayau de saline, which stretches towards the Arkansa, and empties into the Washita many leagues below, having gone about twelve miles. The mountains they had passed being of the primitive kind, which seldom produce metals, and having hitherto seen nothing of a mineral kind, a little poor iron ore excepted, and the face of the country, as far as they could see, presenting the same aspect ; they returned to the camp, at the hot springs, on the evening of the thirtieth, by another route, in which they met with nothing worthy notice.

In consequence of the rains which had fallen, Mr. Dunbar, and those who were transporting the baggage to the river camp, found the road watry. The soil on the flat lands under the stratum of vegetable mould is yellowish, and consists of decomposed schistus, of which there are immense beds in every stage of dissolution, from the hard stone recently uncovered and partially decomposed to the yellow and apparently homogeneous earth. The covering of vegetable earth between the hills and the river is, in most places, sufficiently thick to constitute a good soil, being from four to six inches ; and it is the opinion of the people upon the Washita, that wheat will grow here to great perfection. Although the higher hills, three hundred to six hundred feet in height, are very rocky, yet the inferiour hills, and the sloping bases of the first, are generally covered with a soil of a middling quality. The natural productions are sufficiently luxuriant, consisting chiefly of black and red oak, intermixed with a variety of other woods, and a considerable undergrowth. Even on these rocky hills are three or

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* Having thrust a stick down into the crater of one of the springs, at some distance up the hill, several drops of petroleum, or naptha, rose and spread upon the surface : it ceased to rise after three or four attempts.

four species of vines, said to produce annually an abundance of excellent grapes. A great variety of plants which grow here, some of which in their season are said to produce flowers highly ornamental, would probably reward the researches of the botanist.

On the morning of the 8th of January, 1805, the party left Ellis's on the river camp, where they had been detained for several days waiting for such a rise in the waters of the river, as would carry their boat in safety over the numerous rapids below. A rise of about six feet, which had taken place the evening before, determined them to move this morning; and they passed the chuttes about one o'clock. They stopped to examine the rocky promontary below these falls, and took some specimens of the stone which so much resembles the Turkey oil stone. It appears too hard. The strata of this chain were observed to run perpendicularly nearly east and west, crossed by fissures at right angles from five to eight feet apart; the lamina from one fourth of an inch to five inches in thickness. About a league below, they landed at Whetstone hill and took several specimens. This projecting hill is a mass of greyish blue schistus of considerable hardness, and about twenty feet perpendicular, not regularly so, and from a quarter to two inches in thickness, but does not split with an even surface.

They landed again on the morning of the 9th, in sight of the bayau de la prairie de Champignole, to examine and take specimens of some free stone and blue slate. The slate is a blue schistus, hard, brittle, and unfit for the covering of a house; none proper for that purpose have been discovered, except on the Calfat, which Dr. Hunter met with in one of his excursions.

On the evening of the 10th they encamped near Arclon's Troughs, having been only three days in descending the distance which took them thirteen to ascend. They stopped some time at the camp of a Mr. Le Fevre. He is an intelligent man, a native of the Illinois, but now residing at the Arkansas. He came here with some Delaware and other Indians, whom he had fitted out with goods, and receives their peltry, fur, &c. at a stipulated price, as it is brought in by the hunters. Mr. Le Fevre possesses considerable knowledge of the interiour of the country; he confirms the account before obtained, that the hills or mountains which give rise to this little river are in a manner insulated; that is, they are entirely shut in and inclosed by the immense plains or prairies which extend beyond the Red river, to the south, and beyond the Missouri, or at least some of its branches, to the north, and range along the eastern base of the great chain, or dividing ridge, commonly known by the name of the sand hills, which separate the waters of the Mississippi from those which fall into the Pacifick ocean. The breadth of this great plain is not well ascertained. It is said by some to be at certain parts, or in certain directions, not less than two hundred leagues; but it is agreed by all who have a knowledge of the western country, that the mean breadth is at least two thirds of that distance. A branch of the Missouri called the river Platte, or Shallow river, is said to take its rise so far south as to derive its first waters from the neighbourhood of the sources of the Red and Arkansa rivers. By the expression plains or prairies, in this place, is not to be understood a dead flat, resembling certain savannas, whose soil is stiff and impenetrable, often under water, and bearing only a coarse grass resembling reeds; very different are the western prairies, which expression signifies only a country without timber. These prairies are neither flat nor hilly, but undulating into gently swelling lawns and expanding into spacious vallies, in the centre of which is always found a little timber growing on the banks of the brooks and rivulets of the finest waters. The whole of these prairies are represented to be composed of the richest and most fertile soil; the most luxuriant and succulent herbage covers the surface of the earth, interspersed with millions of flowers and flowering shrubs, of the most ornamental kinds. Those who have viewed only a skirt of these prairies, speak of them with enthusiasm, as if it was only there that nature was to be found truly perfect; they declare, that the fertility and beauty of the rising grounds, the extreme richness of the vales, the coolness and excellent quality of the water found in every valley, the salubrity of the atmosphere, and above all the grandeur of the enchanting landscape which this country presents, inspire the soul with sensations not to be felt in any other region of the globe. This paradise is now very thinly inhabited by a few tribes of savages, and by the immense herds of wild cattle, (bison) which people these countries. The cattle perform regular migrations according to the seasons, from south to north, and from the plains to the mountains; and in due time, taught by their instincts, take a retrograde direction. These tribes move in the rear of the herds, and pick up stragglers, and such as lag behind, which they kill with the bow and arrow, for their subsistence. This country is not subjected to those sudden deluges of rain which in most hot countries, and even in the Mississippi territory, tear up and sweep away with irresistable fury, the crop and soil together: on the contrary, rain is said to become more rare in proportion as the great chain of mountain is approached; and it would seem that within the sphere of the attraction of those elevated ridges, little or no rain falls on the adjoining plains. This relation is the more credible, as in that respect our new country may resemble other flat or comparatively low countries, similarly situated; such as the country lying between the Andes and the western Pacifick; the plains are supplied with nightly dews so extremely abundant, as to have the effect of refreshing showers of rain; and the spacious vallies, which are extremely level, may with facility be watered by the rills and brooks which are never absent from these situations. Such is the description of the better known country lying to the south of Red river, from Nacogdoches towards St. Antonio, in the province of Taxus: the richest crops are said to be procured there without rain; but agriculture in that quarter is at a low ebb: the small quantities of maize furnished by the country, is said to be raised without cultivation. A rude opening is made in the earth, sufficient to deposit the grain, at the distance of four or five feet, in irregular squares, and the rest is left to nature. The soil is tender, spongy and rich, and seems always to retain humidity sufficient, with the bounteous dews of Heaven, to bring the crops to maturity.

The Red and Arcansa rivers, whose courses are very long, pass through portions of this fine country. They are both navigable to an unknown distance by boats of proper construction; the Arcansa river is, however, understood to have greatly the advantage with respect to the facility of navigation. Some difficult places are met with in the Red river below the Nakitosh, after which it is good for one hundred and fifty leagues (probable computed leagues of the country, about two miles each); there the voyager meets with a very serious obstacle, the commencement of the "raft," as it is called; that is, a natural covering which conceals the whole river for an extent of seventeen leagues, continually augmenting by the driftwood brought down by every considerable fresh. This covering, which, for a considerable time, was only drift-wood, now supports a vegetation of every thing abounding in the neighbouring forest, not excepting trees of a considerable size; and the river may be frequently passed without any knowledge of its existence. It is said that the annual inundation is opening for itself a new passage through the low grounds near the hills; but it must be long before nature, unaided, will excavate a passage sufficient for the waters of Red river. About fifty leagues above this natural bridge, is the residence of the Cadeaux or Cadadoquies nation, whose good qualities are already mentioned. The inhabitants estimate the post of Nakitosh to be half way between New Orleans and the Cadeaux nation. Above this point the navigation of Red river is said to be embarrassed by many rapids, falls, and shallows. The Arcansa river is said to present a safe, agreeable, and uninterrupted navigation as high as it is known. The lands on each side are of the best quality, and well watered with springs, brooks, and rivulets, affording many situations for mill-seats. From description it would seem that along this river there is a regular gradation of hill and dale, presenting their extremities to the river; the hills are gently swelling eminences, and the dales, spacious vallies with living water meandering through them; the forests consist of handsome trees, chiefly what is called open woods. The quality of the land is supposed superiour to that on Red river, until it ascends to the prairie country, where the lands on both rivers are probably similar. About two hundred leagues up the Arcansa is an interesting place called the Salt prairie: there is a considerable fork of the river there, and a kind of savanna where the salt water is continually oozing out and spreading over the surface of a plain. During the dry summer season the salt may be raked up in large heaps; a natural crust of a hand breadth in thickness is formed at this season. This place is not often frequented, on account of the danger from the Osage Indians; much less dare the white hunters venture to ascend higher, where it is generally believed that silver is to be found. It is further said, that high up the Arcansa river salt is found in form of a solid rock, and may be dug out with the crow-bar. The waters of the Arcansa, like those of Red river, are not potable during the dry season, being both charged highly with a reddish earth or mould, and extremely brackish. This inconvenience is not greatly felt upon the Arcansa, where springs and brooks of fresh water are frequent; the Red river is understood not to be so highly favoured. Every account seems to prove, that immense natural magazines of salt must exist in the great chain of mountains to the westward; as all the rivers in the summer season, which flow from them, are strongly impregnated with that mineral, and are only rendered palatable after receiving the numerous streams of fresh water which join them in their course. The great western prairies, besides the herds of wild cattle, (bison, commonly called buffaloe) are also stocked with vast numbers of wild goat (not resembling the domestick goat) extremely swift footed. As the description given of this goat is not perfect, it may from its swiftness prove to be the antelope, or it possibly may be a goat which has escaped from the Spanish settlements of New Mexico. A Canadian, who had been much with the Indians to the westward, speaks of a wool-bearing animal, larger than a sheep, the wool much mixed with hair, which he had seen in large flocks. He pretends also to have seen a unicorn, the single horn of which, he says, rises out of the forehead and curls back, conveying the idea of the fossil cornu ammonis. This man says, he has travelled beyond the great dividing ridge so far as to have seen a large river flowing to the westward. The great dividing monutain is so lofty that it requires two days to ascend from the base to its top; other ranges of inferiour mountains lie before and behind it; they are all rocky and sandy. Large lakes and vallies lie between the mountains. Some of the lakes are so large as to contain considerable islands; and rivers flow from some of them. Great numbers of fossil bones, of very large dimensions, are seen among the mountains, which the Canadian supposes to be the elephant. He does not pretend to have seen any of the precious metals, but has seen a mineral which he supposes might yield copper. From the top of the high mountain the view is bounded by a curve as upon the ocean, and extends over the most beautiful prairies, which seem to be unbounded, particularly towards the east. The finest of the lands he has seen are on the Missouri; no other can compare in richness and fertility with them. This Canadian, as well as Le Fevre, speak of the Osages of the tribe of Whitehairs, as lawless and unprincipled: and the other Indian tribes hold them in abhorrence as a barbarous and uncivilized race: and the different nations who hunt in their neighbourhood, have their concerting plans for their destruction. On the morning of the 11th the party passed the petit ecor a Fabri. The osier, which grows on the beaches above, is not seen below upon this river; and here they began to meet with the small tree called 'chanier' which grows only on the water side, and is met with all the way down the Washita. The latitude of 33° 40′ seems the northern boundary of the one, and the southern boundary of the other of those vegetables. Having noticed the limit set to the long moss, (Telandsia) on the ascent of the river, in latitude 33°, Mr. Dunbar made inquiry of Mr. Le Fever, as to its existence on the Arcansa settlement, which is known to lie in about the same parallel; he said, that its growth is limited about ten miles south of the settlement, and that as remarkably, as if a line had been drawn east and west for the purpose; as it ceases all at once, and not by degrees. Hence it appears, that nature has marked with a distinguishing feature, the line established by congress, between the Orleans and Louisiana territories. The cypress is not found on the Washita higher than thirty-four degrees of north latitude.

In ascending the river, they found their rate of going to exceed that of the current about six miles and a half in twenty-four hours; and that on the 12th, they had passed the apex of the tide or wave, occasioned by the fresh, and were descending along an inclined plane; as they encamped at night, they found themselves in deeper water the next morning, and on a more elevated part of the inclined plane than they had been in the preceding evening, from the progress of the apex of the tide during their repose.

At noon, on the 16, they reached the post of the Washita.

Mr. Dunbar being anxious to reach the Natchez as early as possible, and being unable to procure horses at the post, took a canoe with one soldier and his own domestick, to push down to the Catahoola, from whence to Concord there is a road of 30 miles across the low grounds. He set off early on the morning of the 20th, and at night reached the settlement of an old hunter, with whom he had conversed on his way up the river. This man informed him, that at the place called the mine, on the Little Missouri, there is a smoke which ascends perpetually from a particular place, and that the vapour is sometimes insupportable. The river, or a branch of it, passes over a bed of mineral, which, from the description given, is, no doubt, martial pyrites. In a creek, or branch of the Fourche a' Luke,* there is found on the beaches and in the cliffs, a great number of globular bodies, some as large, or larger, than a man's head, which, when broken, exhibit the appearance of gold, silver, and precious stones; most probably pyrites and crystalized spar. And at the Fourche des Glaises a' Paul, (higher up the river than Fourche a' Luke) near the river there is a cliff full of hexagonal prisms, terminated by pyramids, which appear to grow out of the rock; they are from six to eight inches in length, and some of them are an inch in diameter. There are beds of pyrites found in several small creeks communicating with the Washita, but it appears that the mineral indications are greatest on the Little Missouri, because, as before noted, some of the hunters actually worked on them, and sent a parcel of the ore to New Orleans. It is the belief here, that the mineral contains precious metal, but that the Spanish government did not choose a mine should be opened so near to the

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* Three leagues above Ellis' camp.

British settlements. An express prohibition was issued against working these mines.

At this place, Mr. Dunbar obtained one or two slips of the "bois d'arc," (bow wood) or yellow wood, from the Missouri. The fruit which had fallen before maturity, lay upon the ground. Some were of the size of a small orange, with a rind full of tubercles; the colour, though it appeared faded, still retained a resemblance to pale gold.

The tree in its native soil, when laden with its golden fruit, (nearly as large as the egg of an ostrich), presents the most splendid appearance; its foliage is of a deep green, resembling the varnished leaf of the orange tree, and, upon the whole, no forest tree can compare with it in ornamental grandeur. The bark of the young trees resembles, in texture, the dog wood bark; the appearance of the wood recommends it for trial as an article which may yield a yellow dye. It is deciduous; the branches are numerous, and full of short thorns or prickles, which seem to point it out as proper for hedges or live fences. This tree is known to exist near the Nakitosh (perhaps in latitude 32°), and upon the river Arcansa, high up (perhaps in lat. 36°); it is therefore probable that it may thrive from latitude 38° to 40°, and will be a great acquisition to the United States if it possess no other merit than that of being ornamental.

In descending the river, both Mr. Dunbar and Dr. Hunter searched for the place said to yield gypsum, or plaister of Paris, but failed. The former gentleman states, that he has no doubt of its existence, having noted two places where it has been found; one of which is the first hill or high land which touches the river on the west, above the bayau Calumet, and the other is the second high land on the same side. As these are two points of the same continued ridge, it is probable that an immense body of gypsum will be found in the bowels of the hills where they meet, and perhaps extending far beyond them.

On the evening of the 22d, Mr. Dunbar arrived at the Catahoola, where a Frenchman of the name of Hebrard, who keeps the ferry across Black river, is settled. Here the road from the Washita forks, one branch of it leading to the settlement on Red river, and the other up to the post on the Washita. The proprietor of this place has been a hunter and a great traveller up the Washita and into the western country: he confirms generally the accounts received from others. It appears from what they say that in the neighbourhood of the hot springs, but higher up, among the mountains, and upon the Little Missouri, during the summer season, explosions are very frequently heard, proceeding from under the ground: and not rarely a curious phenomenon is seen, which is termed the blowing of the mountains; it is confined elastic gas forcing a passage through the side or top of a hill, driving before it a great quantity of earth and mineral matter. During the winter season the explosions and blowing of the mountains entirely cease, from whence we may conclude, that the cause is comparatively superficial, being brought into action by the increased heat of the more direct rays of the summer sun.

The confluence of the Washita, Catahoola and Tenza, is an interesting place. The last of these communicates with the Mississippi low lands, by the intervention of other creeks and lakes, and by one in particular, called "Bayau d'Argent," which empties into the Mississippi, about fourteen miles above Natchez. During high water there is a navigation for batteaux of any burthen along the bayau. A large lake, called St. John's lake, occupies a considerable part of the passage between the Mississippi and the Tenza; it is in a horse shoe form, and has, at some former period, been the bed of the Mississippi: the nearest part of it is about one mile removed from the river at the present time. This lake, possessing elevated banks, similar to those of the river, has been lately occupied and improved. The Catahoola bayau is the third navigable stream: during the time of the inundation there is an excellent communication by the lake of that name, and from thence, by large creeks, to the Red river. The country around the point of union of these three rivers is altogether alluvial, but the place of Mr. Hebrard's residence is no longer subject to inundation. There is no doubt, that as the country augments in population and riches, this place will become the site of a commercial inland town, which will keep pace with the progress and prosperity of the country. One of the Indian mounts here is of a considerable elevation, with a species of rampart surrounding a large space, which was, no doubt, the position of a fortified town.

While here, Mr. Dunbar met with an American, who pretended to have been up the Arkansa river three hundred leagues. The navigation of this river, he says, is good to that distance, for boats drawing three or four feet water. Implicit faith, perhaps, ought not to be given to his relation, respecting the quantity of silver he pretends to have collected there. He says he has found silver on the Washita, thirty leagues above the hot springs, so rich, that three pounds of it yielded one pound of silver, and that this was found in a cave. He asserts, also, that the ore of the mine upon the little Missouri was carried to Kentucky, by a person of the name of Boon, where it was found to yield largely in silver. This man says he has been up the Red river likewise, and that there is a great rapid just below the raft, or natural bridge, and several others above it; that the Caddo nation is about fifty leagues above the raft, and near to their village commences the country of the great prairies, which extend four or five hundred miles to the west of the sand mountains, as they are termed. These great plains reach far beyond the Red river to the south, and northward over the Arkansa river, and among the numerous branches of the Missouri. He confirms the account of the beauty and fertility of the western country.

On the morning of the 25th Mr. Dunbar set out, on horseback, from the Catahoola to Natchez. The rain which had fallen on the preceding days rendered the roads wet and muddy, and it was two in the afternoon before he reached the Bayau Crocodile, which is considered half way between the Black river and the Mississippi. It is one of the numerous creeks in the low grounds which assist in venting the waters of the inundation. On the margins of the water courses the lands are highest, and produce canes; they fall off, in the rear, into cypress swamps and lakes. The waters of the Mississippi were rising, and it was with some difficulty that they reached a house near Concord that evening. This settlement was begun since the cession of Louisiana to the United States, by citizens of the Mississippi territory, who have established their residence altogether upon newly acquired lands, taken up under the authority of the Spanish commandant, and have gone to the expense of improvement, either in the names of themselves or others, before the 20th of December, 1803, hoping thereby to hold their new possessions under the sanction of the law.

Exclusive of the few actual residents on the banks of the Mississippi, there are two very handsome lakes in the interiour, on the banks of which similar settlements have been made. He crossed at the ferry, and at midday of the 26th reached his own house.

Dr. Hunter, and the remainder of the party, followed Mr. Dunbar down the Washita with the boat in which they had ascended the river, and, ascending the Mississippi, reached St. Catharine's landing on the morning of the 31st January, 1805.

Common names of some of the trees, shrubs, and plants growing in the vicinity of the Washita.

THREE kinds of white oak, four kinds of red oak, black oak, three kinds of hickory, one of which has an oblong nut, white and good, chinkapin, three kinds of ash, one of which is the prickly, three kinds of elm, two kinds of maple, two kinds of pine, red cedar, sweet gum, black gum, linden, two kinds of iron wood, growing on high and low lands, sycamore, box elder, holly, sweet bay, laurel, magnolia acuminata, black walnut, filbert, buckeye, dogwood, three kinds of locust, the three-thorned and honey locust, hazle, beech; wild plumb, the fruit red but not good; bois d'arc (bow wood) called also bois jaune (yellow wood) a famous yellow dye; three kinds of hawthorn, with berries, red, scarlet, and black; lote tree, for Indian arrows; bois de carbane, a small growth, and proper for hoops; two kinds of osier, myrtle, tooth-ache tree, and magnolia.

A vine, bearing large good black grapes in bunches, black grape, hill grape, yellow grape, muscadine, or fox grape, and a variety of other vines. The saw briar, single rose briar, and china root briar, wild goose berry, with a dark red fruit, three kinds of whortle berry, wild pomegranate, passion flower, two sorts of sumach, winter's berry, winter's green, a small red farinaceous berry like a haw, on a plant one inch high, which grows under the snow, and is eaten by the Indians; the silk plant, wild endive, wild olive, pink root, snake root, wild mint of three kinds, coloquintida (bitter apple) growing along the river side, clover, sheep's clover, life everlasting, wild liquorice, marygold, missletoe, thistle, wild hemp, bull rush, dittany, white and red poppy, yellow jessamine, poke, fern, capillaire, honeysuckle, mosses, petu to make ropes with, wormwood, hops, ipecacuanha, persicaria, Indian turnip, wild carrot, wild onion, ginger, wild cabbage, and bastard indigo.

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

COMMUNICATION TO BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SECOND SESSION OF THE NINTH CONGRESS, DECEMBER 2, 1806.

To the Senate and House of Representatives
of the United States, in Congress assembled.

IT would have given me, Fellow Citizens, great satisfaction to announce, in the moment of your meeting, that the difficulties in our foreign relations, existing at the time of your separation, had been amicably and justly terminated. I lost no time in taking those measures which were most likely to bring them to such a termination, by special missions, charged with such powers and instructions as, in the event of failure, could leave no imputation on either our moderation or forbearance. The delays, which have since taken place in our negociations with the British Government, appear to have proceeded from causes which do not forbid the expectation that, during the course of the session, I may be enabled to lay before you their final issue. What will be that of the negociations for settling our differences with Spain, nothing which has taken place, at the date of the last dispatches, enables us to pronounce. On the western side of the Mississippi she advanced in considerable force, and took post at the settlement of Bayau Pierre, on the Red river. This village was originally settled by France, was held by her as long as she held Louisiana, and was delivered to Spain only as a part of Louisiana. Being small, insulated, and distant, it was not observed at the moment of re-delivery to France and the United States, that she continued a guard of half a dozen men, which had been stationed there. A proposition, however, having been lately made by our commander in chief, to assume the Sabine river as a temporary line of separation between the troops of the two nations, until the issue of our negociations shall be known this has been referred by the Spanish commandant to his superiour, and in the mean time he has withdrawn his force to the western side of the Sabine river. The correspondence on this subject, now communicated, will exhibit more particularly the present state of things in that quarter.

The nature of that country requires indispensably that an unusual proportion of the force employed there should be cavalry or mounted infantry. In order therefore that the commanding officer might be enabled to act with effect, I had authorized him to call on the governours of Orleans and Mississippi for a corps of five hundred volunteer cavalry. The temporary arrangement he has proposed may perhaps render this unnecessary. But I inform you, with great pleasure, of the promptitude with which the inhabitants of those territories have tendered their services in defence of their country. It has done honour to themselves, entitled them to the confidence of their fellow citizens in every part of the Union, and must strengthen the general determination to protect them efficaciously under all circumstances which may occur.

Having received information that in another part of the United States a great number of private individuals were combining together, arming and organizing themselves, contrary to law, to carry on a military expedition against the territories of Spain, I thought it necessary, by proclamation, as well as by special orders, to take measures for preventing and suppressing this enterprize, for seizing the vessels, arms, and other means provided for it, and for arresting and bringing to justice its authors and abettors. It was due to that good faith which ought ever to be the rule of action in publick as well as in private transactions; it was due to good order, and regular government, that, while the publick force was acting strictly on the defensive, and merely to protect our citizens from aggression, the criminal attempts of private individuals to decide, for their country, the question of peace or war, by commencing active and unauthorized hostilities, should be promptly and efficaciously suppressed.

Whether it will be necessary to enlarge our regular force, will depend on the result of our negociations with Spain. But as it is uncertain when that result will be known, the provisional measures requisite for that, and to meet any pressure intervening in that quarter, will be a subject for your early consideration.

The possession of both banks of the Mississippi reducing to a single point the defence of that river, its water, and the country adjacent, it becomes highly necessary to provide for that point a more adequate security. Some position above its mouth, commanding the passage of the river, should be rendered sufficiently strong to cover the armed vessels, which may be stationed there for defence; and, in conjunction with them to present an insuperable obstacle to any force, attempting to pass. The approaches to the city of New-Orleans, from the eastern quarter also will require to be examined, and more effectually guarded. For the internal support of the country, the encouragement of a strong settlement on the western side of the Mississippi, within the reach of New-Orleans, will be worthy the consideration of the legislature.

The gun-boats authorized by an act of the last session, are so advanced, that they will be ready for service in the ensuing spring. Circumstances permitted us to allow the time necessary for their more solid construction. As a much larger number will still be wanting to place our sea-port towns and waters in that state of defence to which we are competent, and they catitled, a similar appropriation for a further provision of them is recommended for the ensuing year.

A further appropriation will also be necessary for repairing fortifications already established, and the erection of such other works as may have real effect in obstructing the approach of an enemy to our sea-port towns, or their remaining before them.

In a country whose constitution is derived from the will of the people, directly expressed by their free suffrages; where the principal executive functionaries, and those of the legislature, are renewed by them at short periods; where, under the characters of jurors, they exercise in person the greatest portion of the judiciary powers; where the laws are consequently so formed and administered as so bear with equal weight and favour on all, restraining no man in the pursuits of honest industry, and securing to every one the property which that acquires, it would not be supposed that any safeguards could be needed against insurrection, or enterprize, on the publick peace or authority. The laws, however, aware that these should not be trusted to moral restraints only, have wisely provided punishment for these crimes when committed. But would it not be salutary to give also the means of preventing their commission? Where an enterprize is meditated by private individuals, against a foreign nation, in amity with the United States, powers of prevention, to a certain extent, are given by the laws. Would they not be as reasonable, and useful, where the enterprize preparing is against the United States?—While adverting to this branch of law, it is proper to observe, that, in enterprizes meditated against foreign nations, the ordinary process of binding to the observance of the peace and good behaviour, could it be extended to acts to be done out of the jurisdiction of the United States, would be effectual in some cases where the offender is able to keep out of sight every indication of his purpose which could draw on him the exercise of the powers now given by law.

The states on the coast of Barbary seem generally disposed at present to respect our peace and friendship. With Tunis alone, some uncertainty remains. Persuaded that it is our interest to maintain our peace with them on equal terms, or not at all, I propose to send in due time a reinforcement into the Mediterranean, unless previous information shall shew it to be unnecessary.

We continue to receive proofs of the growing attachment of our Indian neighbours, and of their disposition to place all their interests under the patronage of the United States. These dispositions are inspired by their confidence in our justice and in the sincere concern we feel for their welfare. And as long as we discharge these high and honourable functions with the integrity and good faith which alone can entitle us to their continuance, we may expect to reap the just reward in their peace and friendship.

The expedition of Messrs. Lewis, and Clarke, for exploring the river Missouri, and the best communication from that to the Pacifick Ocean, has had all the success which could have been expected. They have traced the Missouri nearly to its source, descended the Columbia to the Pacifick Ocean, ascertained with accuracy the geography of that interesting communication across our continent, learnt the character of the country, of its commerce and inhabitants, and it is but justice to say that Messrs. Lewis and Clarke, and their brave companions, have, by this arduous service, deserved well of their country.

The attempt to explore the Red River, under the direction of Mr. Freeman, though conducted with a zeal and prudence meriting entire approbation, has not been equally successful. After proceeding up about six hundred miles nearly as far as the French settlements had extended, while the country was in their possession, our geographers were obliged to return without completing their work.

Very useful additions have also been made to our knowledge of the Mississippi, by Lieutenant Pike, who has ascended it to its source, and whose journal and map, giving the details of his journey, will shortly be ready for communication to both houses of congress. Those of Messrs. Lewis, Clarke and Freeman, will require further time to be digested and prepared. These important surveys, in addition to those before possessed, furnish materials for commencing an accurate map of the Mississippi and its western waters. Some principal rivers however remain still to be explored, towards which the authorisation of congress, by moderate appropriations, will be requisite.

I congratulate you, fellow-citizens, on the approach of the period at which you may interpose your authority constitutionally, to withdraw the citizens of the United States from all further participation in those violations of human rights, which have been so long continued on the unoffending inhabitants of Africa, and which the morality, the reputation, and the best interests of our country, have long been eager to proscribe. Although no law you may pass can take prohibitory effect till the first day of the year one-thousand eight hundred and eight, yet the intervening period is not too long to prevent, by timely notice, expeditions, which cannot be completed before that day.

The receipts at the treasury, during the year ending on the 30th day of Sept. last, have amounted to near fifteen millions of dollars: which have enabled us, after meeting the current demands, to pay two millions seven hundred thousand dollars of the American claims, in part of the price of Louisiana; to pay, of the funded debt, upwards of three millions of principal, and nearly four of interest, and in addition to reimburse, in the course of the present month, near two millions of five and a half per cent. stock. These payments and reimbursements of the funded debt, with those which have been made in the four years and a half preceding, will, at the close of the present year, have extinguished upwards of 23 millions of principal.

The duties composing the Mediterranean fund will cease, by law, at the end of the present session. Considering, however, that they are levied chiefly on luxuries, and that we have an impost of salt, a necessary of life, the free use of which otherwise is so important, I recommend to your consideration the suppression of the duties on salt, and the continuation of the Mediterranean fund, instead thereof, for a short time, after which that also will become unnecessary for any purpose now within contemplation.

When both of these branches of revenue shall, in this way, be relinquished, there will still, ere long, be an accumulation of monies in the treasury, beyond the instalments of publick debt which we are permitted by contract to pay. They cannot then, without a modification, assented to by the publick creditors, be applied to the extinguishment of this debt, and the complete liberation of our revenues, the most desirable of all objects. Nor, if our peace continues, will they be wanting for any other existing purpose. The question, therefore, now comes forward, to what other objects shall these surplusses be appropriated, and the whole surplus of impost, after the entire discharge of the publick debt, and during those intervals when the purposes of war shall not call for them? Shall we suppress the impost, and give that advantage to foreign over domestick manufactures? On a few articles, of more general and necessary use, the suppression, in due season, will doubtless be right; but the great mass of the articles, on which impost is paid, are foreign luxuries, purchased by those only who are rich enough to afford themselves the use of them.—Their patriotism would certainly prefer its continuance and application to the great purposes of the publick education, roads, rivers, canals, and such other objects of publick improvement as it may be thought proper to add to the constitutional enumeration of federal powers. By these operations, new channels of communication will be opened between the States; the lines of separation will disappear, their interests will be identified, and their union cemented by new and indissoluble ties. Education is here placed among the articles of publick care, not that it would be proposed to take its ordinary branches out of the hands of private enterprize, which manages so much better all the concerns to which it is equal; but a publick institution can alone supply those sciences, which, though rarely called for, are yet necessary to complete the circle, all the parts of which contribute to the improvement of the country, and some of them to its preservation. The subject is now proposed for the consideration of congress, because, if approved, by the time the state legislatures shall have deliberated on this extension of the federal trusts and the laws shall be passed, and other arrangements made for their execution, the necessary funds will be on hand, and without employment. I suppose an amendment of the constitution, by the consent of the States, necessary, because the objects now recommended are not among those enumerated in the constitution, and to which it permits the publick monies to be applied.

The present consideration for a national establishment for education particularly, is rendered proper by this circumstance also, that, if Congress, approving the proposition, shall yet think it more eligible to found it on a donation of lands, they have it now in their power to endow it with those which will be among the earliest to produce the necessary income. This foundation would have the advantage of being independent on war, which may suspend other improvements by requiring for its own purposes the resources destined for them.

This, fellow citizens, is the state of the publick interests, at the present moment, and according to the information now possessed. But such is the situation of the nations of Europe, and such too the predicament in which we stand with some of them, that we cannot rely with certainty on the present aspect of our affairs, that may change from moment to moment, during the course of your session, or after you shall have separated. Our duty therefore is to act upon things as they are, and to make a reasonable provision for whatever they may be. Were armies to be raised whenever a speck of war is visible in our horizon, we never should have been without them. Our resources would have been exhausted on dangers which have never happened, instead of being reserved for what is really to take place. A steady, perhaps a quickened pace, in preparations for the defence of our seaport towns and waters, an early settlement of the most exposed and vulnerable parts of our country, a militia so organized that its effective portions can be called to any point in the union, or volunteers instead of them, to serve a sufficient time, are means which may always be ready, yet never preying on our resources until actually called into use. They will maintain the publick interests, while a more permanent force shall be in a course of preparation. But much will depend on the promptitude with which these means can be brought into activity. If war be forced upon us in spite of our long and vain appeals to the justice of nations, rapid and vigorous movements, in its outset, will go far towards securing us in its course and issue, and towards throwing its burthens on those who render necessary the resort from reason to force.

The result of our negociations, or such incidents in their course as may enable us to infer their probable issue; such further movements also, on our western frontiers as may shew whether war is to be pressed there, while negociation is protracted elsewhere, shall be communicated to you from time to time, as they become known to me; with whatever other information I possess or may receive, which may aid your deliberations on the great national interests committed to your charge. TH. JEFFERSON.